CHANGE IN A WOMEN'S COLLEGE AND ITS
SCHOOL OF NURSING, 1940-1980:
A SYSTEMS ANALYSIS

By

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This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, Leila Blanche Young Hughes (1904-1984), who was my first teacher. Throughout her life by her example, she encouraged me to grow and develop both as a scholar and as a woman.

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CHANGE IN A WOMEN'S COLLEGE AND ITS SCHOOL OF NURSING,
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A systems approach was used to describe and analyze the history of

Barry College and its School of Nursing from the time the College was

founded in 1940 until it was renamed Barry University in 1980. The

research questions address participants in the change process, factors

facilitating and inhibiting change, strategies used to facilitate or

inhibit the change process, and generalizations to be drawn by applying

general systems theory to the analysis of the history of Barry College

and its School of Nursing.

The theoretical framework   includes   general   systems theory,

historical and change processes, and curriculum development. Primary

data sources include official records and minutes, financial and

administrative reports, letters and oral history interviews of selected

administrators, faculty, and alumnae.

When Barry was founded, it was a small, Roman Catholic, women's

college owned and operated by the Adrian Dominican sisters, quite

similar to many other small women's colleges in the United States. As postsecondary education grew throughout the country during the 1940s and 1950s, Barry College also grew. The School of Nursing was founded in 1953. During the late 1960s and early 1970s deficit financing was among the trustees' and administrators' most pressing concerns. During a time period when many other small colleges were forced to close, institution of a long-range planning process, including careful fiscal management, enabled Barry to survive.

Change-facilitating factors included the College's growth in size and complexity, federal education-related laws, adequate financial support, and effective leadership. Change-inhibiting factors included centralized administrative and communication styles, conservatism, intermittent ineffective leadership, and financial difficulties.

"Normative-reeducative" strategy was the predominant change-facilitating strategy, while overcentralization and legal and professional requirements were the most frequently identified change-inhibiting strategies.

The systems analysis is represented by a series of models which depict Barry College at ten-year intervals. The models suggest that Barry College began as a small, undifferentiated system with recognizable values, goals, norms, and control mechanisms. As it grew into a complex system, Barry had difficulty with inappropriate control mechanisms. Long-range planning, a systems approach to planned change implemented during the 1970s, appears to have helped Barry College become a self-renewing university.

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Historically, nursing education has evolved from the Nightingale model, a hospital-based apprenticeship system in which the majority of the student's time was spent giving bedside nursing care to patients.[1] This system of nursing education predominated in the United States until the 1960s despite the recommendations of several national studies that nursing education become part of the collegiate educational system. Two important surveys, by Goldmark in 1923 and Brown[2] in 1948, reinforced this need.

In 1970, the report of the National Commission for the Study of Nursing and Nursing Education (NCSNNE) recommended the restructuring of nursing roles, education, and career patterns in an effort to make nursing a profession capable of serving as a principal partner with medicine in the changing American health care delivery system. One of the NCSNNE recommendations was the repatterning of nursing education from the traditional hospital-based system to a two-level (two- and four-year) collegiate system.[3] Although the number of baccalaureate nursing programs grew gradually throughout the twentieth century, the most rapid growth of both two- and four-year collegiate nursing programs began in the 1960s and accelerated during the 1970s.[4]

An interesting example of the movement of nursing education from a
hospital-based system to a valued component of the collegiate system may
be found at Barry University in Miami Shores, Florida. Barry University
also provides an example of the growth of many small private colleges
into complex universities.

The purpose of this study is to trace the growth and development of
Barry College and its School of Nursing. The Barry College School of
Nursing developed from a small, primarily hospital-based department in a
women's college to a nationally accredited school of nursing within a
small university. The following questions about Barry's change and
growth are answered:

1. What was the nature of participation in the change
   process at Barry College and in the School of
   Nursing?

2. What factors facilitated change at Barry College?

3. What factors inhibited change at Barry College?

4. What strategies were used in the change process at
   Barry College?

5. Which strategies facilitated the changes at Barry
   College?

6. Which strategies inhibited change at Barry College?

7. What generalizations can be drawn by applying
   general systems theory to the history of Barry
   College?

8. What research is needed to better understand change
   in nursing education?

Need for the Study

A preliminary review of the literature revealed a body of
literature on educational and curriculum change. Numerous historical

reports chronicled the growth and development of both higher education and nursing education.[5] Most of these were chronological accounts, many were self-serving reports written from the leaders' viewpoints, and none used the systems approach in analyzing the events they reported. Many of the chronicles of nursing education's development did not relate changes in nursing education to the progress of education in general, nor to the changing roles and status of women. There was also a body of literature regarding curriculum change in general education and in nursing education. Some authors recommended a particular curriculum development process, while others described the content of revised nursing curricula.[6] Lewis, in a 1974 editorial, stated that "the process is as important as the product"[7] when she urged intensive study of the curriculum development process. Two reports of case studies described investigations of the change processes observed during nursing curriculum revision.

In 1974, Ketefian reported on her study of curricular innovations in five schools of nursing. She identified a range of from seven to ten stages in each innovation process for each curricular change. A total of twelve clearly identifiable stages were cited in her report. The stages identified were

> 1) examining the existing curriculum, 2) expressing dissatisfaction with the curriculum, 3) becoming aware and showing interest in a new idea, 4) identifying the problems that cause dissatisfaction, 5) exploring different ideas and conceptual bases for a new curriculum, 6) trying an idea, 7) making a decision to innovate, 8) developing the objectives, 9) developing the innovative curriculum, 10) small-scale testing with revisions as indicated, 11) implementing, and 12) evaluation--both formative and summative.[8]

Ketefian also reported that the duration of the curriculum revisions she studied ranged from 3 to 5 years.

In 1979, Pringle described the process of curriculum development from 1958 through 1968 in an unnamed National League for Nursing (NLN)-accredited school of nursing.[9] She concluded that Taba's seven steps (1--Diagnosis of need, 2--Formulation of objectives, 3--Selection of content, 4--Organization of content, 5--Selection of learning experiences, 6--Organization of learning experiences, and 7--Determining what to evaluate and means of evaluation)[10] had been followed in the curriculum development process. Pringle reported that the factor most consistently facilitating task achievement was effective leadership, and that the most consistently inhibiting factor was ineffective leadership.[11]

Most of the previously discussed authors recommended further study of curriculum development and revision in nursing. Among her recommendations, Pringle specifically recommended further study of the factors facilitating and inhibiting the curriculum change process in schools of nursing.[12]

The studies cited have begun to describe the process of change in nursing education. However, they have not fully explored the general systems approach to curriculum development nor have they identified change strategies used during the processes described. None related changes in nursing education to world events or even to general trends in education. Moreover, no studies were found that used a systems approach to describe changes that occurred in a college system or its subsystems. In this investigation, an attempt is made to further

strategies used during the change process. It is hoped that this investigation will contribute to the knowledge of the change process in education, particularly in nursing education.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The scope and limitations of the study include the following:

1. The study was delimited to one college and its baccalaureate nursing program.

2. As in all historical research, there is a limit to the documentation available. All existing records, reports, and interviews were not made available to the researcher.[13]

3. Primary data collection and analysis were done by the researcher. Investigator bias in the interpretation and analysis of the data could have influenced the findings.

4. The research approach was a historical case study. The findings from a single institutional study cannot be generalized. However, they can add to the available knowledge and assist other investigators in forming research questions.

Definition of Terms

Accreditation is the process by which educational institutions are recognized as fulfilling the standards set forth by a recognized educational accrediting body, for example, the Southern Association for Colleges and Schools (SACS) or the National League for Nursing (NLN).

An associate degree program is a program offered by a school of nursing which is an integral part of a college or university. The content of these programs includes arts and sciences, nursing theory, and clinical practice. The nursing component stresses clinical nursing

in hospitals. The usual time required for successful completion of the program is two academic years of full-time enrollment.

A baccalaureate program is a program offered by a school of nursing which is an integral part of a college or university. The content of these programs incudes arts and sciences, nursing theory, and clinical practice. The nursing component stresses implementation of nursing theory and research in a variety of clinical settings including hospitals, community health agencies, and the client's home. The usual time necessary for successful completion of the program is four academic years of full-time enrollment.

A conceptual framework as defined by Torres represents the faculty's notions about nursing and nursing education. The core concepts usually represent man, society, health, and nursing. The conceptual framework provides structure to the nursing curriculum so that its part can be integrated into the total educational program.[14]

Change is a process by which an object, belief, or attitude is made different in some way.

Curriculum is defined by Conley as all of the means employed by the school to assist the student to learn.[15]

Curriculum development is defined by Conley as a process in which a plan for the curriculum has been designed and a process of review and revision is ongoing.[16]

A diploma program is one offered by a school as an integral component of a hospital's organizational system. The usual time necessary for a student to successfully complete the program ranges from thirty to thirty-six months of full-time enrollment.

An integrated curriculum as defined by Torres is one which blends content in such a way that parts, subjects, or specialities are no longer distinguishable. The curriculum concentrates on generalizations, not specifics.[17]

A major curriculum change is a planned change that involves reorganization of the nursing curriculum, for example, a change from a subject-oriented to an integrated curriculum or the adoption of a conceptual framework to structure the curriculum.

A specialty-oriented curriculum is a subject-oriented curriculum in which the course content studied is derived from medical specialities such as surgery or pediatrics.

A system is a set of elements in mutual interaction which are organized in hierarchical levels. Sets of mutually-interacting self-regulating systems form suprasystems, systems, and subsystems which interact with each other and with other systems.[18]

A systems approach is a theoretical framework within which to analyze diverse phenomena. A systems approach implies that systems will be studied at various levels of the suprasystem, the system, and the subsystem and that they will be analyzed to determine such systems phenomena as organization self-regulation, control, and conflict.[19]

Summary

The purpose of this study is to identify and describe the processes of change which occurred at Barry College from 1940 through 1980. Although there exists a body of history, theory, and research about educational and curriculum change, there are only a few studies which

relate changes in nursing education to changes in general education or to suprasystem events. Many of the reports of curriculum change are more related to structure than process. Also, there are very few investigations that use a systems approach to study the change process. This study, therefore, is needed to continue the description of facilitators and inhibitors of curriculum change in nursing and to identify research questions which can stimulate future research on the process of change in schools of nursing. Further, the systems analysis component of this study should provide new insights into the process of educational change.

Remainder of the Dissertation

Chapter II, designated "Review of the Literature," includes general systems theory, historical and change processes, and curriculum development. Chapter III, the methodology section, contains a discussion of historical research approaches, criteria for selection of the school, primary and secondary sources of historical data, and the development of a participant interview guide. Chapter IV, the suprasystem, includes a brief general history of the time period under study, 1940-80. Chapter V is the history of the institution, Barry College. Chapter VI is a description of the Barry College School of Nursing and of the events which occurred during curriculum revision processes. Chapter VII is a continuation of the data analysis and synthesis and intended to answer each of the research questions found at the beginning of Chapter I. This section includes a discussion of participants in the change process, strategies inhibiting and facilitating change, and a systems

analysis of the change process at Barry College/University. Chapter VII

concludes with a discussion of the research problems and questions which

emerged from the study.

Notes

[1] Katherine Williams, "From Sarah Gamp to Florence Nightingale: A Critical Study of Hospital Nursing from 1840 to 1897," in Rewriting Nursing History, ed. Celia Davies (Totowa, N.J.: Barnes and Noble, 1980), p. 70.

[2] Josephine Goldmark, Nursing and Nursing Education in the United States (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923); Esther Lucille Brown, Nursing for the Future (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1948).

[3] Jerome P. Lysaught, Action in Affirmation: Toward an Unambiguous Profession of Nursing (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1981), pp. 1-2.

[4] Lysaught, Action in Affirmation, pp. 11-21.

[5] Minnie Goodnow, Outlines of Nursing History, 4th ed. (Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders, 1930); Lavinia L. Dock and Isabel M. Stewart, A Short History of Nursing, 4th ed. (New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1938); Irmengarde Eberle, Nurse! The Story of a Great Profession (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1944); Josephine A. Dolan, Goodnow's History of Nursing, 10th ed. (Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders, 1958); Robert Beck, A Social History of Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965); Andreas Kazamias and Bryon G. Massialas, Tradition and Change in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965); Walter Laquer and George L. Mosse, eds. Education and Social Structure in the Twentieth Century (New York: Harper & Row, 1967); Gerald J. Griffin and Yvonne K. Griffin, Jensen's History and Trends of Professional Nursing, 6th ed. (St. Louis: C.V. Mosby, 1969); Edward J. Power, Main Currents in the History of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970); H. Patrick Montague, "The Historic Function of the University," pp. 15-25 in The World Yearbook of Education (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1971); Jacqueline Scherer, "Changing Influencing the Development of Higher Education in the United States," pp. 227-28 in World Yearbook of Education (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1971); William F. Cornell, A History of Education in the Twentieth-Century World (New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1980).

[6]Edith P. Lewis, "Curriculum Change: Process and Product," <u>Nursing Outlook</u>, 22 (1974): 305; Marjory Gordon and Michael Anello, "A Systematic Approach to Curriculum Revision," <u>Nursing Outlook</u>, 22 (1974): 306-09; Vivian C. Wolf and Cecilia M. Smith, "Curriculum Change: Evolution of a Dynamic Structure," <u>Nursing Outlook</u>, 22 (1974): 315-20.

[7]Lewis, 305.

[8]Shake Ketefian, <u>Sources of Knowledge Utilized in Curriculum Change in Nursing Education</u>, Paper presented at the 59th Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill., April, 1974 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 901 511, 1974).

[9]Shiela M. Pringle, <u>A Case Study of the Process of Curriculum Change in a National League for Nursing Accredited School of Nursing, 1958-1968</u>. Ed.D. Dissertation, Temple University, 1979 (Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 80-14555, 1980).

[10]Hilda Taba, <u>Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice</u> (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962), p. 12.

[11]Pringle, 149-50.

[12]Pringle, 159.

[13]Deobold B. Van Dalen, <u>Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction</u>, 4th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1979), pp. 294-95.

[14]Gertrude Torres, "Curriculum Process and the Integrated Curriculum," in <u>Faculty Development, Part 4, Unifying the Curriculum: The Integrated Approach</u> (New York: National League for Nursing, 1974), p. 18.

[15]Virginia C. Conley, <u>Curriculum and Instruction in Nursing</u> (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1973), p. 8.

[16]Conley, p. 15.

[17]Gertrude Torres, "Educational Trends and the Integrated Approach in Nursing," in <u>Faculty Development, Part 4, Unifying the Curriculum: The Integrated Approach</u> (New York: National League for Nursing, 1974), p. 2.

[18]Ludwig von Bertalanffy, "General Systems Theory," <u>General Systems</u> 1 (1956): 3-8; and Ervin Lazlo, "Basic Constructs of Systems Theory and Human Communication," in <u>General Systems Theory and Human Communication</u>, ed. Brent D. Rubin and John Y. Kim (Rochell Park, N.J.: Hayden Book Company, Inc., 1975), p. 72.

[19]von Bertalanffy, "General Systems Theory," pp. 3-10.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The process of educational change can be very simple or exceedingly complex, ranging from the introduction or deletion of a single course to the development of multiple systems efforts. Studies dealing with educational change have addressed various functions such as planning, implementation, and evaluation, as well as various perspectives; for example, those from administrators, teachers, learners, and parents. External and internal factors impacting on the educational change process have also been considered.

The process of change studied in this investigation is the development of a small women's college into a university. The founding and growth of the School of Nursing was an integral component of the College's growth. The process is analyzed from a systems theoretical framework through the use of historical research methods. In 1979, Smith suggested that various "theoretical and construct formulations may be subsumed into general systems theory" (GST) and that a theory or model can guide the researcher to the study of previously unnoticed characteristics.[1] In 1956, von Bertalanffy proposed GST as a tool which provides models for studying the organized complexity found in diverse fields.[2]

In order to begin to answer the research questions posed in Chapter I, it was necessary to review the literature of general systems theory and then to apply systems theory to a discussion of the historical and change processes[3] and curriculum development. The curriculum development process is considered to include the educational macrosystem and the school microsystem. The educational macro- and microsystems include the participants in the change process, the strategies used to effect change, and the facilitating and inhibiting factors impacting upon the curriculum change process. Therefore, the literature review begins with a discussion of general systems theory and includes theoretical constructs, historical and change processes, and curriculum development.

General Systems Theory

In 1956, von Bertalanffy stated that "corresponding abstractions and conceptual models" may be applied to such diverse phenomena as animal growth, cybernetics, and human social behavior.[4] He proposed a theory "of universal principles applying to systems in general."[5] Boulding called for a body of systematic theoretical constructs within which to discuss the general relationships of the empirical world.[6] Von Bertalanffy defined systems as "sets of elements in interaction."[7] He differentiated between closed and open systems. Closed systems are isolated from their environment. In physical chemistry, reactions of elements in a closed container are an example of a closed system. Von Bertalanffy described a system characteristic called entropy and defined entropy as the system's tendency toward maximum disorder. In closed

systems, entropy increases to a maximum until the system achieves a state of equilibrium.

Von Bertalanffy also described open systems, which he defined as those having a continuous inflow and outflow of the components needed to maintain themselves. Von Bertalanffy noted that every living organism is an open system which exchanges matter, energy, or information with its environment, importing and exporting the components needed to maintain a dynamic equilibrium called a "steady state."[8] This steady state exhibits regulatory characteristics which operate to maintain the system. Feedback cycles increase order and decrease entropy, therefore making it possible for systems to be open. Within open systems, feedback cycles promote import and export of needed matter, energy, or information. However, in closed systems, these processes are irreversible; therefore, entropy (disorder) can only increase.[9]

General systems theory can be employed in studying the organization and complexity of open systems. In 1968, von Bertalanffy advocated the application of systems concepts to the study of the organization and complexity of social systems. He stated that human sociocultural systems, from the smallest (dyad or family) to the largest (nations, civilizations) are open systems, exhibiting systems characteristics such as wholeness, growth, differentiation, hierarchical order, and control.[10]

Many social systems are not in a steady state; rather, they exhibit cyclic fluctuations resulting from the interactions of their subsystems.[11] Social systems may be studied in various of their

hierarchical arrangements.[12]   In 1975, Lazlo (1975) proposed that systems are

> self-stabilizing, self-organizing and ordered wholes
> which share a common environment and impose systemic
> order on that environment. Sets of mutually inter-
> acting systems form suprasystems and organize
> themselves as parts in the emerging whole. The
> system thus formed can interact with other systems
> on its own level to form still higher level supra-
> systems. . . . The co-existence of systems on
> multiple levels results in a highest level system
> which is hierarchically organized.[13]

The construct of a multi-level hierarchy provides for the inclusion of diverse phenomena, and many structures and functions in a discussion of systems. Any system can be divided into subsystems. The components of one subsystem may be a part of the environment of another subsystem. Systems at each level are comprised of systems from all lower levels and of their interaction within the suprasystem at their own level. Many subsystems on one level combine to form one system at a higher level. Consequently, there are fewer higher level systems, but they have wider repertoires of functions which are contributed by their subsystems. Large business or educational organizations are examples of complex hierarchical systems which tend to become progressively more differen- tiated as they grow in size.

In 1956, Hall and Fagin stated that the purpose of an investigation should determine the level of system to be studied:

> Objects belonging to one subsystem may well be
> considered as part of the environment of another
> subsystem. . . . Alternatively, we may say that the
> elements of a system may themselves be systems of
> lower order.[14]

In any scientific study of systems, the investigator includes those elements he/she perceives to be most important and interesting and then

describes their interrelationship as thoroughly as possible. One method
which may be used to study a complex system is to investigate the
behavior of its subsystems. Another technique is to ignore the sub-
systems and observe only the macroscopic behavior of the system as a
whole:

> If every part of the system is so related to every
> other part that a change in a particular part causes
> a change in all other parts, and in the system, the
> system is said to behave as a whole or coherently.
> At the other extreme is a set of parts that are
> completely unrelated, that is, a change in each part
> depends only on that part alone. The variation in
> the set is the physical sum of the parts. Such
> behavior is called independence or physical
> summativity.[15]

Wholeness and independence are extremes of the same property; they exist
on a continuum. Hall and Fagin concluded that "the term 'system' is
only used when some degree of wholeness exists."[16]

The concepts of wholeness and independence can also be used to
describe growth and differentiation in a system. If system changes
cause a gradual transition from wholeness to summativity, the system is
experiencing "progressive segregation"; that is, the system is no longer
characterized by wholeness. Rather, its integrated wholeness has
gradually decreased, causing its subsystems to behave more as separate
systems than as interrelated subsystems. Hall and Fagin distinguished
two kinds of progressive segregation: decay and growth. Decay is
wearing out of the parts so that they no longer fit together; for
example, when the threads of a screw become worn and it can no longer
combine with a board to form a system. In contrast to decay, growth is
a positive phenomenon, a creative evolutionary or developmental process.
Growth occurs when "the system changes in the direction of increasing

division into subsystems or differentiation of function."[17] A good example is the growth of our educational system from the one-room schoolhouse to today's differentiated, complex schools. Growth can also be change toward wholeness. This type of change may be the strengthening of existing relations among subsystems, or the gradual addition of subsystems.[18]

Using a metaphor from nature, Iberall, in 1970, proposed three phases in the growth of systems: birth, life, and death. Birth, the beginning of the system, may occur by planned or by incidental assembly. The life phase may be short or long depending on the system's ability to maintain itself through the input of sufficient energy. The life phase may be prolonged if negentropy increases to provide the system with the energy needed to maintain its steady state and to grow periodically to higher levels of organization.[19] Von Bertalanffy defined negentropy as the system's avoidance of entropy by importating the energy needed to increase order in the system.[20] If the system is unable to import sufficient matter, energy, or information, deterioration and then death occur.

In 1976, Kast and Rosenzweig urged use of the systems approach in the study of organizations.   They contended that an organization is comprised of three mutually interdependent elements which interact within the environment: 1) the activities performed by people, 2) the interactions which occur among people during task performance, and 3) the sentiments that develop among people in the organization. The interactions among organizational elements are interrelated and dynamic, constantly evolving and adapting to internal conditions.   The

organization is a formal social system, influenced by its internal interrelationships and subject to environmental pressures.[21]

The element of control is introduced into social systems to facilitate the attainment of socially beneficial ends. Social inter-action in organizational subgroups restricts individual freedom to a greater or lesser degree so that the group can function collectively to accomplish its goals. In 1957, Vickers stated that individuals choose to become members of organizations which require them to subordinate their individual objectives in order to be able to cooperate in the fulfillment of organizational goals.[22] On the other hand, Nyiri, in 1977, contended that humans become conditioned and controlled to produce the intended outcomes. According to Nyiri, incentives and punishments are the social system's means of ensuring control of individual group members to produce the desired results.[23] An obvious example is education or training of workers to accomplish organizational goals. The employers use salary as an incentive and dismissal as a punishment. However, Argyris, in an observational study of organizational change in two manufacturing plants, noted that individual workers interacted within the organizational subculture to self-regulate their productiv-ity. Thus, in Argyris' opinion, the interaction of organizational control and individual worker self-regulation allowed the individual a measure of control while it also facilitated the fulfillment of management's organizational goals.[24] Thus, Vickers, Nyiri, and Argyris all agreed that there is control in organizational subsystems but differed on the amount of individual choice and subordination to the organization.

In 1964, Miles emphasized stability in educational systems. He defined a system as

> a bounded collection of independent parts devoted to accomplishment of some goal or goals, with the parts maintained in a study state in relation to each other and their environment by means of 1) standard modes of operation, 2) feedback from the environment about the consequences of actions. The systems described are social systems devoted to the achievement of educational goals.[25]

Miles emphasized that educational systems are characterized by their stability: they average only one innovation each year. Change may occur more slowly in educational systems than in more research-oriented systems.[26]

In summary, general systems theory provides a framework within which to analyze diverse phenomena. An open system exchanges matter, energy, and information with its environment in order to maintain a steady state and prevent disorder, which is called entropy. Negative entropy (negentropy) is a measure of order or organization. When open systems increase in order and organization, they are said to exhibit negentropy.

Systems are comprised of hierarchical levels and may be studied at various levels of the suprasystem, the system, and subsystem. The purpose of an investigation determines the level of the system to be studied.

Social groups or organizations should be studied as complex open systems. Their subsystems are interrelated, constantly evolving and adapting to internal and external conditions. Control is introduced into social systems to assure the attainment of socially beneficial ends. There will always be tension in a system between the forces of

order and disorder and between individual and organizational goals. Organizational systems are characterized by stability, not change. The dynamic unfolding of system phenomena in time and space may be studied as a historical process.

Historical Process

In 1968, von Bertalanffy suggested that "history can learn a sounder methodology from systems theorists"[27] and apply it to the study of how societies become and develop. Systems models of history can be molar or molecular. The molar approach is the study of large numbers of people; for example, organizations or societies. The molecular approach investigates individuals or small groups. Thus, the notion of a hierarchical organization and the level of analysis applies as well to history as it does to biology or sociology. In 1968, von Bertalanffy noted that the systems approach to historical analysis has provoked violent criticism when the life cycle model (primitivity, maturity, dissolution, and decay) has been used. He contended, however, that the cyclical nature of history is not inconsistent with the notion of human freedom if concepts of probability and statistics are applied. That is, historical cycles are probable, but not inevitable if systems analysis is used in historical research:[28]

> Human behavior falls far short of rationality. . . .
> Here and there statistical laws are broken by rugged
> individuals or great men who are catalyzers. Nobody
> could have predicted the Industrial Revolution or
> the development of atomic energy by extrapolation
> from life cycles of the past.[29]

Thus, von Bertalanffy admitted the limitations of systems theory and its application to the study of the historical process. Nevertheless, he

contended that the model of dynamic, open, and adaptive systems explains the historical process despite its limitations.[30]

In 1977, Lazlo used a general systems framework to explain the historical evolution of sociocultural systems as arising

> from mutually adaptive behavior patterns of human beings and their primary reproductive social, economic, professional, cultural and political groupings. . . . General systems concepts and principles of evolution and systemic invariance provide frameworks for the interpretation of the broad patterns of history.[31]

Formally or informally organized groups, according to Lazlo, are studied as open systems with semipermeable boundaries which admit or block inputs from and outputs to the environment. Sociocultural systems are self-stabilizing homeostatic systems which strive to counteract deviations from their established steady states.

> Self-organization is also evidenced in sociocultural systems. Historically, self-organization is the process of evolving more adapted and efficient sensing, decision making and effector structures, enabling the system to control its environment and grow. . . . Self-organization combined with self-stabilization gives us the rich patterns of history. Here we see stability alternating with dynamic change to produce more complex and efficient organizations in viable societies.[32]

Generally, social systems tend toward stability, with periodic growth and change producing increasing complexity and organization. The tendency toward self-stabilization produces conservatism between growth phases. Systems, therefore, organize themselves toward maximum resistance to change introduced from the environment.[33]

In 1970, Rapoport proposed an "organismic" system theory which encompasses multiple levels of organism-like systems. The three fundamental properties of an organism--structure, function, and history--are

found in all organism-like systems. Each has a structure which consists of interrelated parts. It functions by reacting to changes in the environment in ways required to maintain itself; that is, the organismic system maintains a steady state. It experiences slow, long-term change by growing or evolving, or by degenerating and dying. Rapoport stated that "organisms, ecological systems, nations, and institutions all have these attributes: structure, function and history; or, if you will, being, acting and becoming."[34]

Rapoport also conceptualized living systems as hierarchical, with the cell as the lowest-level living system. The individual organism is an interconnected organized system of cells, tissues, and organs. Human aggregates such as families, teams, and organizations are medium-level systems; while society, the international system, and humanity as a whole are highest-level systems.[35]

Rapoport proposed a matrix with horizontal rows which represent the levels of the system and vertical columns which represent the aspects of structure, function, and history. This matrix is depicted in Table 2-1. The boxes represent the subject matter of various disciplines. For example, anatomy is concerned with the structure of cells, organs and individual organisms; physiology with the functions of organs and organ systems; and embryology with the development of an individual from a fertilized egg. Biological evolution is the history of species, while history is the evolution of a nation, society, or humanity as a whole.[36]

The use of analogy between the methods of different sciences is an important feature of general systems theory. Rapoport stated that we know that certain natural selection principles are operating in the

TABLE 2-1

LEVELS OF ORGANISMIC SYSTEMS

Level	Aspect		
	Structure (being)	Function (acting)	Evolution/history (becoming)
Society	Sociology, Cultural Anthropology	Sociology, Economics Cultural Anthropology	History
Institutional	Theory of Organization	Political Science, Political Sociology Theory of the Firm	Political Science History, Cultural Anthropology
Small Group	Social Psychology	Social Psychology	
Individual	Anatomy	Physiology, Psychology, Ethnology	Developmental Psychology, Biography
Organ	Anatomy	Physiology	Embryology, Theory of Evolution
Cell	Histology	Cell Physiology, Biochemistry	

histories of such diverse systems as languages and institutions. Parallels can also be established between the exchange of genetic material in sexual reproduction and the cross fertilization of cultures. Rapoport asked,

> Do societies succumb to analogues of cancers, that is growths within a society that eventually become autonomous organisms, indifferent to the needs of society and rob that society of its "nourishment," impair its ability to change and finally kill it?[37]

Vickers, to illustrate his analogy, stated that our current value system is greatly stressed by both its inner inconsistencies and by its rate of historical change. He questioned the effect of our rapidly changing values upon our society. Vickers hoped that general systems theory would help us to understand and control our rapidly changing world.[38]

Vickers classified systems according to the ways they are regulated and to "the extent to which they are affected by historical process."[39] One reason that historical changes perplex the systems student is that historical cycles occur over long time periods. The systems approach to history and other social sciences may improve the explanatory, but not the predictive power of these sciences.[40]

In 1968, Wiener contended that a society can be understood only through a study of its messages and its information systems:

> The physical functioning of the living individual and the operation of some of the newer communication machines are precisely parallel in their analogous attempts to control entropy through feedback. . . . The commands through which we exercise control over our environment are a kind of information, these commands are subject to disorganization in transit. . . . In control and communication, we are always fighting nature's tendency to destroy the organized; therefore, for entropy to increase. . . . To live effectively is to live with adequate information. Thus, communication and control belong to the

essence of man's inner life, even as they belong to
his life in society.[41]

Messages are a form of pattern and control. They manifest entropy if
they become degraded and disorganized. Weiner stated that, "just as
entropy is a measure of disorganization, the information carried by a
set of messages is a measure of organization."[42] Thus, Weiner proposed
that a society (large system) may be analyzed by studying its messages
and informational subsystems over time:

The theory of the message among men, machines and in
society as a sequence of events in time, which
though in itself has a certain contingency, strives
to hold back nature's tendency toward disorder by
adjusting its parts toward various purposive ends.[43]

Other historical writers advocated the study of history as a means
of understanding complex phenomena. They seemed to imply, but did not
directly state, that a general systems approach could facilitate the
study of history.

In 1976, Kliebard wrote that "Historical case studies seem to have
the capacity to bring a sense of complexity to the problems we deal
with."[44] Beach stated that "Studies in which researchers try to make
sense out of ideas or phenomena that had appeared unrelated . . .
usually are characterized by the use of some powerful concept or telling
question."[45]

Franklin seemed preoccupied with society's use of education as a
means of social control. He also appeared to recommend a systems
approach to the study of educational history, if the systems meaning of
control and regulation were applied. Franklin conceptualized students
as raw material to be molded into a finished product able to function
effectively in society. The use of these mechanistic educational models

"tends to emphasize order, stability and uniformity as opposed to diversity."[46]

McKinney and Westbury used the historical method to study stability and change in the Gary, Indiana, public schools between 1940 and 1970. They suggested that the schools be viewed as complex systems with positive and negative forces for change. They also advocated study of both the macrosystem (national, state, city) and microsystem (classroom) levels in order to understand these complexities.[47]

Most of the historiographies reviewed did not employ the general systems approach. Rather, they used the chronological approach combined with some system of categorization as a means of data analysis and synthesis. These reports are nevertheless useful in studying the history of education in general and the history of curriculum development in particular. Several pertinent historiographies are discussed in detail later in this chapter. A common theme of historical research reports is that we can understand the present more completely and shape the future more effectively if we study the chronicles of the past.[48]

Ina Madge Longway, in an interesting 1972 historical study, analyzed the organization of concepts in the nursing curriculum. She traced their evolution from the pre-Nightingale era to 1972. Longway noted that as increasing scientific sophistication and technology required nurses to use more and more complex knowledge and skills in patient care, the content and organization of the nursing curriculum also changed. Florence Nightingale analyzed the practice and employment requirements of the nurses of her day, rules and procedures of sanitation, and her own philosophy of nursing while planning her nursing

curriculum. Longway stated that in this way Nightingale "systematized nursing content."[49] As society and health care became more sophisticated, the organization and content of the nursing curriculum grew toward increasingly higher levels of sophistication as it responded to societal forces. Longway called the 1970s curriculum the person-centered approach and identified several terms associated with this approach. These approaches are

> the integrated curriculum, the commonalities approach and the core concepts approach. All have in common the use of concepts and principles from many knowledge fields to promote the movement of the person toward maximum health. All required the learner to synthesize, analyze and transfer learnings from one situation to another.[50]

Longway advocated continued use of this systematic approach to curriculum development to identify the direction and kind of curriculum change needed in the future.

In summary, historical change can be studied by using a systems approach. Sociocultural systems evolve from mutually adaptive behavior patterns in social groups and between social groups and their environment. Social systems are self-regulating and tend toward stability, with periodic growth and change producing increasing complexity and organization. The application of general systems theory to history and other social sciences improves their explanation, but not their prediction of phenomena. The study of a society's messages is the study of that society's self-regulation and control. The process of change in complex social systems may be studied by a number of disciplines, including history.

In this study, the growing complexity of Barry College was examined. General systems theory was employed to study both macro- and microsystem changes; that is, the influence of the macro- (educational) system on the microsystem (the school and its nursing curriculum). Historical research methods were used to identify and describe the participants and strategies involved throughout the curriculum change process.

Change Process

The change process is complex and dynamic and has been described from various theoretical perspectives such as general systems theory, complex organization change, planned change, the diffusion model, political change, and the phases of the change process.

General systems theory provided one method of describing and analyzing the change process. In 1970, Platt, a systems theorist, contended that systems undergo sudden transitions to new self-maintaining stable arrangements. He called these sudden changes in structure "hierarchical restructurings" and stated that such restructurings are necessary to produce change. Hierarchical restructuring disturbs the system's steady state in relation to its environment, thus producing change. Pratt stated that this kind of change is

> restructuring by growth of a complex structure to
> larger hierarchical patterns with the passage of
> time. . . . In general, the growth picture is that
> of a hierarchical structure from the lowest levels,
> which grow because they come in contact with new and
> different materials or information, or another
> organism. This can make the patterns unstable at
> level "i" until there is a resolution (conflict,
> cooperation) with restructuring either by breaking
> apart or by a new organization at the "i" + 1 level

to make a new stable pattern encompassing the larger experience or the larger system.[51]

Platt conceptualized macrosystem changes such as the Reformation and the Industrial Revolution as hierarchical restructurings and stated that these restructurings can occur at various levels of systems. He stated that if we are to understand macro- or microsystem changes and have any hope of controlling these changes, we must study then in detail. Pratt stated that changes in a hierarchical organization had the following common characteristics: 1) cognitive dissonance, 2) pervasiveness, and 3) simplification.[52]

Platt contended that cognitive dissonance occurs when new data do not fit existing rules or assumptions. Gradually, more and more information input produces discomfort with the existing state of affairs, then the system is prepared for some sort of change. Pervasiveness occurs when several subsystems or levels become aware of the cognitive dissonance:

> Even though individual elements reach a certain critical density and begin to join forces, the old order finds itself overwhelmed from without and betrayed from within. . . . The new self-maintaining patterns . . . are self-reinforcing to each other as soon as they touch, because they can form the beginnings of a better integrated system . . that the old malfunctioning system cannot match.[53]

For Platt, simplification occurs when a more general explanation "from some entirely different point of view makes big parts of the problem snap into new and clearer relationships."[54] This simplification makes the change appear sudden, but actually a long period of working out the details is required. Platt was not at all sure that hierarchical restructuring can be anticipated or guided, but "either anticipation

or guidance would be themselves creative acts which would be part of the self-structuring. . . . But if direction of change is possible at all, it will only be possible with more intensive analysis of these phenomena."[55]

Another view of change was presented by Conrad in 1978. He posited four models for describing academic change: 1) complex organization, 2) planned change, 3) diffusion of innovations, and 4) political.[56] Conrad used Griffith's definition of complex organization change. Griffiths stated that the complex organization change theory views an organization as a social system comprised of multiple elements or subsystems in mutual interaction with the environment. This social organization possesses such general system characteristics as self-regulation, maintenance of steady states, boundaries, and progressive segregation. Such complex organizations are characterized by stability, not change. When change does occur, it is often in response to environmental forces and may be facilitated by outside change agents and/or by administrators hired from outside the organization.[57] Baldridge and Deal, like Bakke, believed that all of the organization's subsystems are eventually affected by the change process.[58]

The planned change model suggested that the impetus for change comes from within the organization, is rational and intentional, is facilitated by a change agent serving as a catalyst, and is based on conscious utilization and application of knowledge to modify human behavior and institutional practices.[59] The planned change model is useful for understanding how a change agent or an ad hoc policy-recommending group can facilitate change.[60] The planned change model

provided a theoretical base for many of the innovative educational change projects described by Miles.[61]

The diffusion theory views change as a result of the spread of knowledge from person to person: "Diffusion is the communication of an idea, and culminated in its adoption by individuals."[62] The diffusion model stressed the long time span necessary for new ideas to be adopted for general usage, an average of twenty-five years. However, Mort noted that diffusion may occur more rapidly in times of crisis. Effective interpersonal communications are crucial to successful diffusion of innovations.[63]

In 1978, Conrad contended that neither complex organization, planned change, nor diffusion theories accounted for the political processes involved in change. Therefore, he proposed a political model of the change process derived from his inductive "constant comparative method of analysis" of change in four groups of faculty from four colleges.[64] Conrad analyzed published and unpublished reports, meeting minutes, personal files, audiotapes of faculty meetings, and open-ended interviews to collect data regarding curriculum review. Conrad reported that 1) conflict is a natural part of the change process, with competing interest groups exercising power to effect or resist change; 2) administrators may serve as facilitators of academic change or protectors of the status quo, because they are frequently interpreters of organizational goals; 3) although power is diffuse, formal authority and a recognizable decision-making process do exist; 4) if the policy-recommending group is an ad hoc committee, power is not exerted until the recommendations reach the appropriate legislative body; and 5) if a new

academic policy becomes official policy, this new policy may, in turn, create controversy and thus engender another power struggle among interest groups.[65]

The change process is often conceptualized as having recognizable phases. From the perspective of planned change initiated from outside the system by a change agent, Pino and Emery proposed a seven-phase process based on the work of Lippitt:

> 1) developing a need for change, 2) establishment of a change relationship, 3) diagnosis of client system problems, 4) examination of alternative goals and establishing goals for action, 5) transforming intentions into change actions, 6) generalization and stabilization of change, and 7) achievement of a terminal relationship.[66]

In this planned change model, a change agent from outside the client system helps the individual, dyad, small group, or organization through the change process. According to Pino and Emery, this is accomplished by helping the client system learn to recognize the need for change, develop needed skills to plan and implement the change, and then actually plan and implement the change so that it remains a permanent characteristic of the system. Once the change has been stabilized, the relationship between the change agent and the client system is terminated. The phases of this change process are not necessarily linear. They may overlap and repeat themselves due to environmental and intrasystem feedback during the process.[67]

The diffusion model was derived from the study of the spread of agricultural innovations. There are five phases of the diffusion model of change: 1) awareness is learning of the existence of the innovation, 2) interest is seeking information about the innovation and considering

its merits, 3) evaluation is performing a mental trial of the innovation for the individual's own situation, 4) trial is using the innovation on a small scale, and 5) adoption is accepting the innovation for continued use on the basis of the trial.[68] In 1964, Miles concluded that the innovations which were tried on a small scale were more likely to be adopted by the larger system.[69]

To summarize, a systems approach could facilitate the study of the complexities of the change process which can be a macro- or microsystem process. If it is possible to control the change process, this control should be facilitated by intensive analysis of change phenomena at several of the system's hierarchical levels.

In this investigation, historical data from one college and its school of nursing were analyzed in order to determine whether any of the above theories and models of change were exhibited. The change process has recognizable phases which overlap and repeat themselves as the process evolves. In this investigation, systems and change theories were applied to study the process of change in one college and its baccalaureate school of nursing.

Curriculum Development

The curriculum process has also been described by various theorists using a number of different models. Additionally, the term "curriculum system" has been used with different meanings by different authors.

In 1969, Schutz asserted that the curriculum is a complex system comprised of a number of parts interacting in complex ways. He recommended analytically "simplifying complex systems into hierarchical

subsystems" where "each subsystem has integrity . . . but also is an interdependent component of the system."[70] Schutz further recommended a wide variety of social science and descriptive research approaches, including history, for curriculum research.

Beauchamp was an early advocate of the systems approach to curriculum development through the use of curriculum theories and models and the testing of these models. In 1961, he stated that it was necessary to break down the curriculum development process so that techniques of systems analysis could be used to study the components of the process. Beauchamp believed that

> objectives serve as a directive for the role of the school in society, and for the selection of content. Content is selected to fulfill the objectives. Evaluation is done to determine the adequacy of the content for fulfilling the objectives.[71]

Beauchamp conceptualized a curriculum cycle which was a continuous process. Although he did not call the connections between the phases feedback loops, his model did resemble later systems models of curriculum development which contained multiple feedback loops.[72]

Beauchamp also advocated a hierarchical levels approach to determine who should be involved in curriculum planning. At the highest level, he placed a few specialized curriculum theorists and practitioners; at the second level, representative teachers chosen to work with the curriculum specialists; at the third level, classroom teachers; and at the fourth level, lay persons working cooperatively. Beauchamp write that

> one chooses among these levels in accordance with his conception of the present burden of responsibility for curriculum planning . . . and his prediction

as to what level of involvement will produce the best curriculum.[73]

Beauchamp stated that the processes of curriculum planning are "study, decision making and writing."[74] He explained that research and study are needed to determine curriculum objectives, content areas, and evaluation methods. Decision making is necessary in order to choose among alternatives identified by study. Writing and reporting are crucial for record-keeping, communication, and a written copy of the planned curriculum. Beauchamp advocated extensive research to discover and document the processes of curriculum work.[75] He also recommended thorough evaluation research "because of so little experience with this process at the curriculum level."[76]

In 1981, Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis conceptualized the curriculum as a system comprised of the following elements interacting with each other: 1) the persons to be educated; 2) goals and objectives; 3) bases of the curriculum (society, the learners, and knowledge); 4) external forces; and 5) curriculum designs, instructional modes, and evaluative processes. Consideration of the persons to be educated included learner characteristics and society's expectations of the learner's adult functioning. Curriculum developers plan the goals, objectives, and learning experiences needed to prepare the learners to function as society expects them to.[77] Then the "goals and objectives provide a basis for selecting a curriculum design, choosing instructional modes or teaching models to implement the curriculum, and evaluating the curriculum."[78] Multiple feedback loops provided for continuous evaluation and revision during all phases of the curriculum development process. Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis also cautioned that a

good curriculum plan is not a blueprint to be followed exactly. Rather, the curriculum plan should serve as a model to be modified as needed.[79]

In 1982, Bevis, in common with Torres and Stanton, advocated a systems approach to the development of nursing curricula:

> Curriculum building is a process, and therefore can be organized as a dynamic system. No one task is completed in its entirety prior to beginning the next task. Many tasks are in progress simultaneously in various stages of development. Curriculum builders utilize many feedback systems and go back and forth among tasks, adding, deleting and changing components in a continuous growth toward a better system for learning.[80]

Similarly, Torres and Stanton stated,

> The curriculum process must reflect all characteristics of a process . . . a systematic approach to the development of organized areas of learning. . . . The curriculum process moves logically from one step to the next and shows the relationship of one step to another. It's sequential and dynamic, evolving constantly and continually. This dynamic quality provides a spiraling effect which suggests continuous reassessment and reevaluation.[81]

Bevis, like Torres and Stanton, further suggested that nursing faculty participate in the curriculum development process. Torres and Stanton wrote that "the faculty is responsible for the development of the curriculum."[82] Torres and Stanton's advocacy of the nursing faculty as primary curriculum developers differed from Beauchamp's opinion that curriculum building should be done primarily by curriculum experts, with varying participation by others.[83] Bevis agreed with Beauchamp when she stated, "Participation of those affected by the changes at every level (administration, faculty, and students) generates a commitment to the change process and makes collaboration for specific tasks possible and desirable."[84]

Bevis further stated that "systems analysis techniques have permitted processes to be broken into definite tasks so that they can become consistently, specifically operationalized with a high probability of success."[85] Bevis, like Torres and Stanton, conceptualized the systematic curriculum building process as a logical sequence of operations or phases performed primarily by the nursing faculty. The curriculum development tasks begin with identification of a philosophy of nursing, then they progress through identification of the theories and concepts underlying the nursing curriculum, identification of goals and objectives, and then identification of content. Bevis, in common with Torres and Stanton, contended that curriculum development also includes implementation and evaluation in addition to the planning phase. The phases are cyclical, with evaluation and feedback at each phase contributing to all other phases.[86]

In contrast to these theoretical prescriptions for curriculum development, Reid and Walker's 1975 collection of curriculum case study reports described several actual curriculum building efforts. Reid noted that "theories of curriculum implementation have been discussed independently of curriculum design theories, with no substantial basis about how the process should be carried out."[87] He also stated that a number of different theories such as group process and human relations, organizational theories, and cultural forces have all been purported to explain the complexities of the curriculum change process, but none of these explanations has been completely satisfactory.[88] Reid concluded that "any unified curriculum theory should avoid the concept of

innovation divorced from the wider question of how curricula are sustained and how they evolve over time."[89]

Several of the case studies in the Reid and Walker collection are examples of various phases of the curriculum development process. Walker reported on planning, and Shaw and McKinney and Westbury investigated both planning and implementation.

Walker reported on the planning phases of an art curriculum project. Through participant observation, rating scales, and content analysis the investigator noted that contrary to curriculum development theory, needs assessments were not done and objectives were not stated early or used as guides to the rest of the curriculum development process. Rather, content was identified through deliberation and problem solving. Additionally, most of the data used in curriculum planning came from the project staff themselves, not from research findings. Formal evaluation of student learning was not planned. However, formal evaluation was used for revision of curriculum materials after their classroom trial. Walker concluded that

> the deliberative process is not deducting the form
> of the curriculum from given information about the
> students, the subject matter or society, as is
> frequently stated in works regarding curriculum
> making. . . . The most important finding is that the
> logical essence of curriculum development is
> practical reasoning.[90]

Shaw used participant observation and a semantic differential instrument to study the relationship between faculty attitudes and the negotiation process occurring during a curriculum change effort in a college of education. Shaw reported that the participant's attitudes clustered on a continuum from favoring general professional education to

favoring only the subject specialties or academic disciplines. Curriculum planning occurred over a number of years and included both formal and informal negotiations among the faculty. Curriculum decisions were constrained by teacher certification requirements and by lack of needed human and material resources. Skilled leadership prevented the formation of partisan groupings or coalitions and facilitated development of a general consensus. The leadership created confidence in a managed, gradual change process.[91]

McKinney and Westbury used historical research methods to study curriculum change over a thirty-year time period in Gary, Indiana. They reported that curriculum change was much more complex than the educational literature of that period indicated. McKinney and Westbury found that even though the proposed innovative curricula (intercultural education during the 1940s and science and math during the late 1950s) had the local school administration's support, implementation failed due to lack of adequate financial support, institutional constraints, lack of teacher inservice training to prepare teachers to use the innovative instructional materials, and lack of community support for the innovations. An innovative vocational education curriculum was successfully implemented during the late 1960s after the Vocational Education Act of 1963 provided federal financial support and the community had been convinced that vocational education was needed.[92]

McKinney and Westbury concluded that three constants were present in the three curriculum change efforts in Gary: 1) inadequate physical plant was a significant constraint on curriculum innovation, and, conversely, an adequate plant was crucial to successful implementation;

2) lack of financial resources was a significant constraint, but adequate resources facilitated implementation; 3) local commissions recommended the first two proposed changes, but teachers resisted implementation because the innovations violated local cultural norms. However, local opinion was supportive of vocational education during the 1960s and needed resources were available to implement the vocational education curriculum.[93] McKinney and Westbury concluded that

> curricular renewal was a reflection of the interplay between two aspects of the administrative functions of the schools: maintenance and change.
> 1) Maintenance is the need of school to deliver services, deploy teachers, and house students in adequate physical plants.
> 2) Change occurred when maintenance problems eased . . . surveys told the school board what was needed to provide adequate schooling, yet there was no action until federal funding was provided.
> 3) Maintenance and change are hierarchically interdependent. Change will not occur until maintenance needs are met. The wealthier a school district is, the more likely it is to have resources above and beyond those required for maintenance which can be used for change.[94]

To summarize, the preceding discussion suggests that various theorists and investigators describe a complex curriculum system comprised of interrelated components. Some common themes which emerged are 1) the curriculum development process is a complex system; 2) the curriculum process is cyclical, not linear, and employs feedback for evaluation and revision; 3) empirical investigations of curriculum development reveal that the curriculum is derived through deliberation and negotiation among the participants in the curriculum system; and 4) curriculum change usually does not occur until the particular educational system's maintenance needs are met. In the current

investigation, historical data from the curriculum change effort in one college and its baccalaureate school of nursing are examined in order to determine its similarities to and differences from the processes described in the literature.

Participants

The curriculum system includes participants, strategies, and factors facilitating and inhibiting the curriculum change process. Discussed in this section are the participants in the curriculum system. It is followed by sections discussing strategies, then facilitating and inhibiting factors.

In 1964, MacKenzie defined participants as "any individuals capable of actions which influence or control various curriculum components."[95] Participants can be internals or externals. Internals have a direct connection with the school system; they are teachers, students, principals and supervisors, local citizens, state legislators, and state and federal courts. Externals are outside of the educational social and legal system but are influential. They are noneducationists of outstanding achievement who operate through publications and/or foundations which fund research grants, nationally famous academicians, and business and industry influentials, including textbook and mass media manufacturers.[96]

MacKenzie described macrosystem determinants of curricular change. He contended that the most pervasive influence was the "general context in which the schools operate."[97] The public's concern for quality education, basic skills, and computerization appeared to MacKenzie to be

the primary determinants of curricular change at that time. MacKenzie concluded that the externals were the initiators of the change process and the internals were responsible for most of the planning and implementation. The most influential internal participants were boards of education, superintendents, and principals.[98]

In 1979, Trinkus and Brooke also identified participants in the curriculum change process as internals and externals. Their analysis was limited to three accredited colleges of business. Trinkus and Brooke defined internal participants as faculty, administrators, and students. Externals included trustees, alumni, union officials, and commercial representatives. Trinkus and Brooke reported that the most active participants were faculty locals who were senior, tenured full or associate professions and had been teaching at their colleges for several years. Faculty cosmopolites were younger teachers, educated in large schools, and had been at their current colleges for a short time or had taught at several colleges during their careers. Faculty cosmopolites became interested in the curriculum change process only when their subject matter fields were involved. Trinkus and Brooke also reported that college administrators gradually became interested as curriculum planning progressed and that students were seldom actively involved. Trinkus and Brooke concluded that although the externals' opinions and publications were influential, they were almost never actively involved in the curriculum change process.[99]

In her 1981 ethnographic study, Finch identified teachers, parents, and students as internal participants in a curriculum change project in a junior high school. However, her empirical data identified media

publicity as the most important external facilitator in enlisting community support for the proposed change.[100]

Change Strategies

In 1964, Miles defined strategy as a "means for causing an innovation to become durably installed in an educational system."[101] MacKenzie noted that external participants often used their skill and their access to mass media to influence curricular change. These externals were influential because they were well known and highly competent in their fields. The influential externals attacked the existing curricula in interviews, press conferences, and published articles, then they proposed curricular revisions. On the other hand, internals used strategies of advocacy and communication. They conferred extensively with other internals, explained the process changes, and were actively involved in decision making at the district and local school levels. Evaluation, review, and reformulation of proposals were used by both internal and external participants as strategies to effect curriculum change.[102]

Trinkus and Brooke reported that the strategy they observed most often was Chin and Benne's "empirical-rational."[103] Chin and Benne stated that "empirical-rational" change strategies are based on the assumption that people are rational and will follow their rational self-interest. These strategies include personnel selection and replacement, use of expert consultants, research and linkage systems, perceptual and conceptual reorganization through education, and description of ideal situations.[104]

Trinkus and Brooke also reported that "power-coercive" strategies were observed in all three of the schools they studied but were used only to overcome resistance to the proposed change.[105] Chin and Benne described "power-coercive" strategies as those based on the application of power in some form, with those of less power complying with those of greater power.[106]

Chin and Benne identified a third change strategy which they called "normative-reeducative." These strategies are based on the assumptions that patterns of action depend on sociocultural norms and on the commitment of individuals to these norms, and that change will occur only if persons are helped to change their commitment from the old normative patterns to the new one.[107] In 1967, Sheldon Davis described a field experiment in which a systems approach and normative-reeducative strategies were used to change the on-the-job culture. The workers were taught to communicate openly and honestly with each other. Once a core group of key people had learned the new communication pattern, these key people continually worked to change organizational norms by using the newly learned problem-solving process in their day-to-day work situation.[108]

In 1964, Miles proposed a comprehensive strategy matrix which encompassed multiple strategies used at various levels of systems. He identified four ways of initiating strategy: 1) design, when the innovation is discovered or invented; 2) awareness/interest, when potential consumers come to know of the innovation's existence; 3) evaluation, when the potential consumers perform a mental trial of the innovation and form an opinion about its efficacy, feasibility, and

cost; and 4) trial, when the target system engages in a small-scale test of the innovation in order to assess its consequences. Strategies may be initiated from inside or outside the target system and may use existing structures or the creation of new structures to facilitate the change process.[109]

Miles also described the creation of temporary systems as a change strategy. These temporary systems ranged from individual psychotherapeutic systems through residential social systems, research expeditions, consulting systems, and educational and military institutions. The creation of a temporary system can bypass or avoid such antichange forces as organizational norms, fixed communication patterns, and prescribed social roles. Participants in a temporary system are freed from their usual roles and routine responsibilities. Risk-taking and experimentation with alternative behaviors are encouraged. Miles contended that temporary systems are powerfully educative and that newly learned behaviors can be continued after the temporary system has terminated.[110]

In 1964, Fox and Lippitt reported on a successful change effort which used the creation of a temporary system as a change strategy. In their study, thirty teachers and classrooms were observed for three years. Classroom teachers were helped to change the mental health climate in their classrooms. There were three treatment groups: 1) high-involvement teachers, 2) medium-involvement teachers, and 3) minimal-involvement teachers. The classroom mental health climates of the teachers in all groups was pretested. The high-involvement teachers attended summer classes to learn teaching behaviors

facilitative of classroom mental health, then their newly learned teaching behaviors were maintained and improved by supportive monthly meetings of the temporary group and by feedback from project consultants. The medium-involvement teachers did not attend the summer sessions, but they did attend an area meeting to review the project and learn the new teaching behaviors. The medium-involvement teachers also received consultation and feedback of classroom data. The minimum-involvement teachers received feedback and interpretation of data from their classrooms but did not attend any meetings or request further consultation.[111]

Fox and Lippitt concluded that the maximally involved teachers who had participated in the summer workshop and remained in the temporary system throughout the school year had a higher rate of successful innovation than either of the other two groups. Further, the maximally involved group was able to facilitate the diffusion of this innovation to other teachers and classrooms by communicating their experiences and by serving as role models for and consultants to other teachers who were then able to improve their classroom mental health practices.[112]

Factors Which Facilitate Change

Systems analysis of the educational change process reveals a wide variety of change theories, participants, and strategies. In this section the facilitating factors discussed in the change literature are identified. Facilitating factors include administrative support for the planned change, provision of sufficient material and human resources, effective leadership, avoidance of power struggles among the

leadership, avoidance of power struggles among the participants, and effective communication among persons involved in the change process.

In 1982, Bevis suggested that "key organizational people must support and participate in the change."[113]   Fox et al. identified the principal as the most influential person in decision making at the school level.[114]   Griffiths also identified the administrator as important, but he stated that an administrator from outside the system was more likely to be an effective facilitator of change.[115]

Many authors discussed external facilitators of change. In 1964, Miles noted that there is a wide variety of external facilitators of educational change.   These facilitators include federal and state law, federal funding for innovative curriculum projects, and a national examination system.[116]   MacKenzie also identified these external facilitators, but he emphasized the role of the mass media in criticizing existing curricula and proposing changes.[117]   In Finch's ethnographic study, publicity favorable toward the innovation helped to win the principal's support.[118]   MacKenzie, Miles, Evans et al., and McKinney and Westbury all emphasized the importance of community norms and values in facilitating or inhibiting change. In their reports they concluded that if the change is congruent with community values, it is much more likely to be adopted.[119]

Effective leadership was mentioned prominently by several authors as a factor facilitating change.   In 1975, Fox stated that the principal's leadership was crucial to effective educational innovation. In 1964, Miles noted that the effective change agent monitors the innovation in the complex network of individuals, groups, and

organizations, then considers the political and economic impact of the educational innovation.[120]   In 1979, Pringle concluded that effective leadership was the most important facilitating factor in the curriculum change effort that she studied in an accredited school of nursing, and conversely, that ineffective leadership was the most important inhibiting factor.[121] Finally, in 1982, Bevis recognized the importance of leadership when she stated that leadership roles tend to emerge in curriculum work groups according to the group's needs, not to the need of the formal organization. However, the changes planned within the curriculum work groups were not legitimized by the formal organization until the work of the planning groups was complete.[122]

Another facilitating factor for curriculum change is the provision of sufficient material and human resources. In 1964, Miles stated that provision of curriculum materials facilitates the curriculum innovation and that the wide range of teacher competencies that exists makes flexibility of curriculum materials necessary. Further, in the national curriculum projects of the late 1950s and early 1960s, the inclusion of teacher training in the use of the innovative curriculum materials facilitated their adoption.[123]   In 1981, Finch noted that resources needed for a new program must be available if the program is to be successful and that preservice and inservice training can help teachers and administrators to understand each other's roles.[124]

In 1979, Zmud and Cox advocated a systems approach to planning and implementing change because, in order to be able to contribute to an implementation effort, participants must understand why it is being introduced and how it will affect them. Zmud and Cox recommended staff

training programs to facilitate the change effort.[125] Feldens and Duncan, in 1978, reported on a field experiment which demonstrated that inservice training and teacher participation in planning the innovative teaching strategies facilitated the adoption of innovative teaching behaviors.[126]

Several researchers addressed the political factors involved in curriculum change. In addition to external factors such as federal and state legislation and community support, internal negotiations play a part in facilitating or inhibiting the change process. In 1977, using a systems approach, Claus and Bailey asserted that leadership is a complex interaction of "1) the leader, 2) the follower, 3) organizational characteristics, 4) the character of the external environment, 5) tasks and goals, 6) structural and authority variables, 7) work group variables, and 8) performance variables."[127] According to Claus and Bailey, the effective facilitator of change not only uses power wisely to influence goal attainment but also considers the interaction of the leader and followers when planning and implementing change.[128]

In 1975, Shaw asserted that curriculum decisions usually occurred when a quasi-political process was used which allowed policy to be discovered through negotiation.[129] After he had observed a curriculum revision effort in a college of education, Shaw concluded that negotiations among the planning committee members permitted small incremental changes and that opinion leaders encouraged compromises which prevented the development of partisan groupings and systematic opposition.[130] The political process of negotiation, skillfully managed by the leaders, facilitated the successful change effort.

In 1979, Wolf-Wilets and Nugent described four nursing curriculum development efforts. They recommended

> taking a political view of the curriculum . . . seeing it as a dynamic, evolving process rather than a static, stable situation. This analysis can help to turn political forces in a positive direction.[131]

Wolf-Wilets and Nugent contended that analysis of pressure groups, power sources, coalitions, congruence of policy and values, and possible barriers to implementation can enable curriculum workers to avoid failure, wasted efforts, and inadequate curricula.[132]

In 1982, Bevis recommended curriculum work groups apart from the educational bureaucracy in which curriculum builders can participate as equals. She favored avoidance of power struggles through honest discussion and constructive confrontation. Bevis stated that if several alternatives are discussed, win-lose situations can be avoided. Tentative decisions, followed by trials of the curriculum development product, can facilitate the change process and avoid power struggles. Bevis was advocating collaborative rather than competitive curriculum development. She particularly stressed that trust is basic to a free exchange of ideas and that each group member must assume responsibility and accountability for group communications. Bevis stated that participation of all faculty promotes commitment to the change process and later ownership of the revised curriculum.[133]

Shaw, in his 1975 study of curriculum negotiations, stated that communication and discussion in formal meetings was an important component of the negotiations and that informal discussions outside of faculty meetings facilitated development of a compromise between proposed alternatives.[134]

Walker also identified communication and discussion as facilitators of curriculum development. He stated that when participants avoided a premature vote by continuing the discussion, pertinent ideas were brought out. If consensus could not be reached, decisions were postponed and discussion continued outside formal meetings.[135]

In 1975, Schroder, Driver, and Streufert stated that the higher the conceptual level of the participants, the more diverse were the information and alternatives available for decision making. They also noted that when power orientations were less conspicuous, there was less intra- or intergroup aggressiveness and more effective problem solving.[136]

Friedman, in his 1982 study of the diffusion of self-instructional materials among medical school faculty, suggested that those faculty who attended workshops and communicated extensively with colleagues about the self-instructional process were more likely to use the innovation. Additionally, these faculty were also more likely to disseminate information about the innovative self-instructional teaching strategy.[137]

In 1975, Ketefian reported on her investigation of curriculum change in five schools of nursing. She stated that trust and good communication among faculty, among faculty and their leaders, and among faculty and external consultants was a facilitating factor for the curriculum change process. Additionally, Ketefian identified a sound knowledge of the innovation and firm leadership which was accepted by the faculty as facilitating factors in the curriculum development process.[138]

To summarize, significant facilitating factors of curriculum change identified in this section were administrative support for the innovation, sufficient human and material resources, effective leadership, avoidance of power struggles among the participants, and effective communication among persons involved in the curriculum development process.

Inhibitors of Change

In addition to participants, strategies, and facilitating factors, inhibiting factors also affect the outcome of any change effort. Discussed in this part of the literature review are inhibitors of the educational change process. Inhibitors include the size and complexity of the educational system, lack of community support for the innovative effort, lack of community norms for change, legal and accreditation requirements, lack of administrative support for the innovation, lack of material resources needed to plan and implement the change, and lack of skills and/or knowledge needed to plan and implement the change.

In 1964, Griffiths noted that change is inhibited in complex systems by the system's tendency to maintain its established steady state. The hierarchical nature of organizational subsystems increases their efficiency, but it also inhibits communication between the subsystems, thus inhibiting change. Griffiths also noted that subsystems "resist conflict which is practically synonymous with change, and in the same manner, resist change."[139]

In 1980, Connolly and Pondy also noted that complex organizations are inherently difficult to change. They suggested that all attempts to

change will cause unpredictable consequences somewhere in the organizational system. Connolly and Pondy also stated that complex active feedback loops operate to maintain stability in the system and that this tendency is an inhibitor of change.[140]

In 1964, Miles concluded that a hierarchical national educational system exists and that change is inhibited by its size and complexity. He stated that there is hierarchical ordering within educational systems, with the higher-level schools influencing the lower-level schools. "The apogee of influence is the graduate department of the university which influences the lower programs, produces new knowledge, controls admission to itself, and trains related practitioners."[141] Miles concluded that this hierarchy of influence produces homogenization of the educational process, thus slowing the diffusion of educational innovations.[142]

Miles also noted that educational systems differ from other systems in several important ways which also tend to inhibit the change process:

> 1) It is difficult to measure educational output precisely. This may slow innovation and increase ritualization of behavior if no clear criterion of appropriate behavior exists.
> 2) The difference between lay and professional competence is not great. The considerable amount of lay control on education is both a cause and effect of this.
> 3) Educational systems are operated by persons who are themselves instruments of change. This may create resistance to evaluation and to innovation.[143]

The fact that laymen in the community exert control over education can be seen in the amount of community support or lack of support for an educational change. In the preceding section, community support was

discussed as a facilitator of educational change. Conversely, lack of such support can seriously inhibit the change process.

Eichholtz and Rogers, in a 1964 study of adoption of audiovisual aids by elementary school teachers, wrote that teachers stated that they rejected innovations they thought society would deem unacceptable.[144]

In 1982, Imber, in a historical study, described an attempt to introduce sex education in the American public schools which occurred during the years 1900 to 1917. He reported that despite extensive publicity, the sex-education program was not effectively implemented at the classroom level because of community attitudes toward sex education. Imber stated that the prevailing belief at that time was that "the home, not the school, was the ideal place to teach sex hygiene, and parents, not teachers, were the ideal instructors."[145] Imber concluded that lack of community support was the most significant factor leading to the failure of this change effort.

Other researchers noted a related inhibitor of change, the values and norms of the school and of the teachers themselves. Atwood, in his 1964 investigation of the introduction of a high school guidance program, stated that the program violated the teacher's valuing of their ability to handle potentially troubled students. Resistance to the use of the guidance program emerged because the teachers' daily interaction patterns, which they valued and found satisfying, had changed.[146] In 1974, Repucci and Saunders studied the introduction of behavior modification techniques in a school for troubled boys. They also found that the norms and values of the school and its staff inhibited the implementation of the planned change, behavioral modification.[147] In 1976,

Klein stated that spokesmen for established traditions and values are often aware of the negative effects of a proposed change. These defenders of the status quo serve an important function in maintaining the system by defending it from potentially destructive changes. Klein urged change agents to become sensitive to the core values of the system they seek to influence.[148]

Legal and/or accreditation requirements may serve as facilitators or inhibitors of educational change. In 1975, Miles noted that legal requirements for high school graduation were difficult to alter, thus inhibiting educational innovation.[149] In 1975, McKinney and Westbury reported that Indiana high school graduation requirements inhibited the adoption of an intercultural education program in Gary.[150] In 1975, Shaw reported an investigation of curriculum change in a college of education. He found that concern for teacher licensure requirements first inhibited, then later facilitated, the process of curriculum change.[151] In 1982, Bevis stated that faculty may be reluctant to revise the nursing curriculum if they fear that graduates of their school will have difficulty passing the licensure exam after they have completed the new curriculum.[152]

Lack of administrative support was found to doom most curriculum change efforts. In 1964, Griffiths concluded that the longer administrators were in the system, the less likely they were to institute change, and that even if organizational subordinates supported the change, if the administration did not support it, the proposed innovation was unlikely to be adopted.[153] Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein, in their field investigation of an unsuccessful effort to

institute innovative instructional strategies, concluded that even though the director and assistant director verbalized their support, they did not recognize or resolve the problems to which the teachers were exposed. Thus, the change was not adopted due to lack of administrative support.[154]

Finch investigated the roles of the administrator, teachers, and students in planning and implementing a junior high school program. In 1981, she reported that the principal did not initially support the change effort but later became a "reluctant advocate" when he was convinced that parents, students, and the central administration all supported the educational innovation. This ethnographic study reported an unusual instance in which bottom-up change initiated by five teachers and eight students was instituted despite the principal's early lack of support. Although Finch did not use systems analysis, she did report other facilitators which helped to overcome the principal's early resistance to the junior high program.[155]

Lack of sufficient human and material resources, including lack of needed teacher training, has also been identified as a significant inhibitor of educational change. In 1964, Miles identified inadequate financial resources as a significant deterrent to educational innovation. He further reported that expensive innovations were usually adopted more slowly than less expensive changes. Miles also stated that lack of curriculum materials was a barrier to the diffusion of educational innovations.[156]

Eichholtz and Rogers reported that not knowing how to use the innovative audiovisual aids was a significant cause of their rejection

by elementary school teachers.[157]   In their field study, Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein reported that unavailability of needed instructional materials, lack of clarity about the innovation, and lack of skills and knowledge needed to implement the new teaching role were significant causes of the failure of teachers to implement the planned innovative instructional role.[158]

McKinney and Westbury noted that lack of adequate funding, inadequate school buildings, and lack of curriculum materials inhibited the implementation of the innovative intercultural and vocational education curricula in the Gary, Indiana, school system between 1940 and 1960. The school system had formally adopted these innovations, but they were never effectively implemented in the classrooms.[159] Hall and Loucks, like Brown and McIntyre, reported that the innovative curricula and teaching roles they investigated were not consistently implemented at the classroom level even though they had been formally adopted by the educational systems involved.   They attributed the failure of the educational change effort to an absence of teacher training and to the teacher's negative attitudes toward the innovative practices.[160]

This part of the review of the literature suggested that the following factors significantly inhibited the process of curriculum change: 1) the large size and complexity of educational systems, 2) lack of community support for the innovative effort, 3) legal and accreditation requirements, 4) lack of administrative support for the change, and 5) lack of human and material resources needed to plan and implement the change.

Implications of the Literature Review

The literature review has documented that there exists a body of theory and research regarding educational and curriculum change. The review also suggested that while prominent educational leaders have proposed prescriptive theories of curriculum change, there exist only a few research reports concerning the process of curriculum change. Using a systems approach and historical research methods, this study analyzed the process of change in one college and its baccalaureate school of nursing. These changes occurred from 1940 to 1980. Data were examined to determine what problems the school faced, what was the nature of participation in the change process, what strategies were used during change efforts, and what factors facilitated and inhibited the process of change. Additionally, the results were compared with similar research reports in order to determine whether the process of change in nursing education is similar or differs significantly from change in other educational disciplines, and what questions about educational change in nursing education could be explored through subsequent research.

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CHAPTER III
DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Basic Approach

From the background provided by the review of the literature, the investigation focused on the suprasystem, the system, and the subsystem under study. Chapter IV, the suprasystem, includes a summary of the history of the time period under study, 1940-1980. Chapter V is a historical account of the growth and development of the system, Barry College, from 1940 through 1980. Chapter VI, the subsystem, is the history of the Barry College School of Nursing, including a chronological description of the curriculum development process undertaken by the school. Historical research approaches and a systems theoretical framework were used to study the history of Barry College, now known as Barry University, and its School of Nursing during a period of rapid educational and societal change, 1940-1980.

In 1966, Campbell and Stanely called a detailed study of a single instance a case study and categorized a case study as a preexperimental design.[1] Descriptive case studies usually examine complex factors found within one person, group, or institution.[2] In 1979, Van Dalen stated that the case study is a method of studying the past experience, present status, and environmental forces "that contribute to the individuality and behavior of the unit, . . . one constructs a comprehensive integrated picture of the social unit as it functioned in society."[3]

Franklin, Thompson, and McKinney and Westbury all referred to their historical studies as case studies, or a case for study. In 1982, Franklin stated that "the public schools of Minneapolis, Minnesota, offer an appropriate case . . . for study."[4] In 1976, Thompson referred to a "specific case study of a particular valley."[5] In 1975, McKinney and Westbury wrote that "the goal of the case study is to study how the changes that did occur happened."[6]

In 1969, Beach labeled histories of specific schools "biographies of institutions."[7] He urged his readers to evaluate institutional biographies critically and to consider the "reverence that often characterizes official histories."[8] Beach further advised historical researchers to analyze available data in order to acquire knowledge about previously unexamined curriculum processes. In this investigation, analysis of Barry College's available documents was supplemented with audiotaped interviews with participants in order to clarify the institution's version of past events. These oral interviews helped the researcher to discern the participants' perceptions and to compare them with Barry College's official viewpoint.[9] Newspapers, official records, and participant interviews provided the data to be analyzed. In order to provide a general systems theoretical framework, three of the system's levels were examined. These levels were the suprasystem, the system, and the subsystem. The suprasystem included related world events such as wars, national legislation, and educational and nursing system occurrences. The system studied was Barry College, and the subsystem was its School of Nursing.[10]

Selection of the Institution

Due to financial and temporal constraints, the study was delimited to one college/university and its baccalaureate nursing program. The following criteria were used to select the school of nursing to be studied:

1. The curriculum development process was to have been either the development of a new curriculum or a major revision in the content and/or organization of content.

2. The nursing faculty should have been involved throughout the curriculum development process.

3. Primary sources such as official records, meeting minutes, letters, personal records, and interviews with participants were accessible to the investigator.

4. The majority of the faculty members involved in the curriculum development process were available for interviews by the investigator.

5. The school was NLN-accredited or seeking NLN accreditation at the time the curriculum development process was undertaken.

6. The school was geographically accessible to the investigator.

The first criterion was chosen in order to assure that the school under study was involved in a major curriculum revision effort. Shaw noted that much short-term change resulted from subject area knowledge technology but that major curriculum change involved varying effects on multiple system levels.[11] The second criterion was selected because educational leaders frequently stress the need for faculty to be involved in curriculum development efforts in their school or college in order to develop the commitment needed to implement the curriculum.[12]

The third criterion was necessary to assure that adequate data would be available for analysis.[13] The fourth criterion was needed so that oral history interviews could be used to authenticate and validate meeting minutes, personal records, and letters and to elicit the participants' perceptions of the events under study.[14] The sixth criterion assured the investigator sufficient opportunity to review and analyze the available data.

The fifth criterion was established because the National League for Nursing (NLN) was and is the nationally recognized accrediting agency for schools of nursing in the United States.[15]

Three baccalaureate schools of nursing were geographically accessible to the investigator. The deans of each of the three schools were contacted by letter (see Appendix A) and asked if they considered their schools of nursing appropriate study subjects. The deans also were asked for permission to review available records in order to ascertain what data were available for analysis.

All three of the geographically accessible schools met criteria one, two, and five. One school, Florida International University School of Nursing, refused the investigator permission to review its records. The remaining two schools invited the investigator to review their records and to begin the appropriate institutional review processes. The investigator's proposal was approved by the University of Miami School of Nursing Research Committee on February 18, 1983, with the stipulation that the school's and the participant's anonymity be protected. The Barry University School of Nursing faculty approved the proposal on April 25, 1983. The Barry faculty also gave permission for

the school's identity to be revealed and for faculty identities to be revealed if the faculty member gave her permission.

The nature of historical research demands that the participants' identities be revealed so that subsequent researchers may validate the primary data sources. The refusal of one school to allow the investigator to review its records and the refusal of the second school to allow its identity to be revealed precluded their choice as study subjects, and this quite possibly deprived nursing education of valuable insights into the change process.

Subsequent record review revealed that while both the University of Miami and Barry University schools of nursing had sufficient faculty accessible for oral history interviews, Barry's records were much more complete than the University of Miami's. Therefore, because of record availability and because of the faculty's willingness to reveal the school's identity, the history of Barry University and its School of Nursing from 1940 through 1980 was selected for the study.

Data Collection

Primary data sources were examined for authenticity and credibility. In the instance of official records and minutes, the original document was used if available. If the original documents were not available, photocopies were analyzed. Photocopies were authenticated by interviewing participants and by comparing documents with other available copies. Letters and personal notes were authenticated by participant interviews.[16]

Credibility was established by interviewing the participants and then comparing their comments to the contents of the documents. In the instance of differences in content, the documents were considered official history and the contents of the interviews were interpreted as the participants' historical viewpoint.

Primary sources were used in an attempt to answer the research questions regarding the participants, the strategies, and the facilitating and inhibiting factors employed in the curriculum change process under study. Secondary data sources included books, periodicals, newspapers, brochures, and college handbooks and catalogues. Secondary sources were used to study the historical and theoretical background of the history of Barry College, of the School of Nursing, and of the educational system during the period under study, 1940-1980.[17]

External Criticism: Authenticity

External criticism was used to establish the validity of such documents as manuscripts, letters, books, and pamphlets.[18] According to Gottschalk, printed sources have usually been authenticated by the editor. Typescripts and photocopies were authenticated by comparing the originals with available copies and by questioning interviewees regarding the authenticity of documents.[19] The Dean of the School of Nursing authenticated official documents when no other named participants were able to do so.

Internal Criticism: Credibility

After researchers establish the validity of a document, they must
then establish its reliability or truthfulness.   Researchers must
determine whether the information contained in the document is accurate.
Accuracy may be established by comparing independent primary sources
such as other documents or eyewitnesses to the events reported in the
written documents. In 1975, Cristy cautioned historical researchers to
search for and eliminate biased accounts and also to be sure that their
own biases did not influence their interpretation of the data.[20]
Gottschalk advised historical researchers to evaluate sources for
nearness to the event in time and space, competency, degree of attention
toward the reported event, and favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward
the event.[21] Vancina stated that official history is more subject to
bias then private history.[22]   In this study, many of the interviewees
agreed with the information found in the official documents.   If there
was disagreement, both the official viewpoint and the interviewee's
opinion were considered in the data analysis.

Field Procedures

In order to protect the privacy of persons described in any of the
sources investigated, United States Department of Education guidelines
for investigators were followed.   Permission for the study was sought
and granted through the appropriate research review committees of two of
the three baccalaureate schools of nursing accessible to the
investigator and by the University of Florida Institutional Review
Board.   Additionally, informed consent forms designed by the

investigator were signed by each participant interviewed (see Appendix B). When interviewees requested anonymity, their names were not revealed in the report. The majority of participants interviewed, however, gave permission for selected statements to be quoted and for their names to be revealed in this report. The Barry University School of Nursing was identified in the written report. Permission for this identification was granted by the current faculty on April 25, 1983.

A release form stating that the interviewee gives the recording and transcript of the interview to Barry University for scholarly or educational purposes and an Oral History Data Sheet were adapted with permission of the authors from the work of Sitton, Mehaffey, and Davis (see Appendix C).[23]

Oral History Interviews

After primary and secondary sources were thoroughly reviewed, an oral interview guide was developed to assist the researcher during the participant interviews (see Appendix D). The review of the literature revealed that interview questions could concern minutes of meetings and other official records; faculty members' perceptions of events occurring during meetings; participants' memories of the interpersonal and leadership processes during the years under study; faculty members' knowledge of and preparation for curriculum development activities, change strategies such as inservice workshops and creation of temporary work groups, and facilitators and inhibitors of the change process. Fourteen administrators, faculty, former faculty, and alumnae were interviewed for the study. These oral interviews were audiotaped, then later

transcribed. The transcriptions and the audiotapes were donated to the Barry University library so that they may be available to other researchers.

Those participants interviewed did relate many interesting perceptions of events and processes which occurred at Barry College/ University. Many of these recollections are reported in Chapters V and VI of this dissertation. Additionally, many of the interviewees revealed recollections of their feelings during the change process and stated that the interview had helped them to better understand these experiences.

Data Processing

The data were analyzed and synthesized in an attempt to provide answers to the questions posed in the problem statement. This analysis and synthesis began with external criticism which evaluated the quality of the primary sources and internal criticism which determined their truthfulness. Primary source documents such as meeting minutes and financial statements were validated by Sister Marilyn Morman, O.P., Barry University Vice President for Planning, and Dr. Judith Balcerski, Dean, School of Nursing. When original documents were not available, copies were validated by these administrators. The truthfulness of primary source documents was ascertained through interviews of participants named in the documents. Additionally, two participants who were unavailable for interviews provided correspondence giving information about the primary source documents and about their participation.

The next step required organization of the data in chronological time periods since the events under study occurred sequentially. The data were organized into categories suggested by the research questions: for example, participants in the curriculum change process, strategies used to effect change, and facilitators and inhibitors of the change process. The data then were reanalyzed for interrelationships among time sequence and the emergent categories and also for interrelationships among the categories.[24] Finally, a systems analysis was performed by analyzing the interrelationships among the suprasystem, historical events of 1940-1980; the system, Barry College/University; and the subsystem, the Barry College School of Nursing.

Communication of the Results

Chapter VII, Summary and Conclusions, contains detailed answers to each of the research questions posed in Chapter I. These answers were derived through analysis and synthesis of primary and secondary sources reported in Chapter IV, the Suprasystem; Chapter V, the System; and Chapter VI, the Subsystem. The study concluded with question eight, which suggests additional research needed to more fully understand change in nursing education.

Summary

The study employed a systems approach and historical research methods to investigate the process of change which occurred at Barry College and its School of Nursing from 1940 through 1980. Similar

studies have been reported by McKinney and Westbury, Pringle, and Franklin.

The institution was selected because it met the following criteria: 1) the curriculum development process was a major curriculum revision; 2) nursing faculty were involved throughout the curriculum development process; 3) primary data sources from the years 1940-1980 were available; 4) the majority of the faculty members involved in the 1970-1976 curriculum revision at the school were available to be interviewed by the investigator; 5) the school was NLN-accredited and was seeking reaccreditation during the time period under study; and 6) Barry University was geographically accessible to the investigator.

After the primary and secondary sources were reviewed, an oral history guide was developed. Primary and secondary data sources were examined for authenticity and credibility. Primary sources included official records and correspondence, minutes of meetings, and personal records and correspondence. Secondary sources included books, periodicals, newspapers, brochures, and college catalogues. Secondary sources were used to study the historical and theoretical background of the change process, the suprasystem, and of Barry College from 1940 through 1980.

United States Department of Education guidelines for behavioral research were followed in securing permission for the study. Approval was sought and received from the University of Florida Institutional Review Board. Informed consent forms were designed and used to obtain written permission for the oral history interviews and use of the data thus obtained. The privacy of the interviewees was protected by

numbering the recorded interviews and by referring to the participants by role description in the written report unless they gave permission for their names and statements to be used.

The data were analyzed and synthesized in an attempt to provide answers to the questions posed in the problem statement. This analysis and synthesis required organization of the data in categories such as participants in the curriculum change process, change strategies, and factors facilitating or inhibiting change.

Chapter IV provides a description of the suprasystem which influenced change at Barry College from 1940 through 1980. Chapter V is a detailed description of the history of Barry College from 1940 through 1980. Chapter VI is a description of the Barry College School of Nursing between its founding in 1953 and 1980. Chapter VII provides some answers to the research questions posed in the problem statement as well as a discussion of future research needed to improve understanding of change in nursing education.

<u>Notes</u>

[1]Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, <u>Experimental and Quasi-experimental Designs for Research</u> (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1965), p. 6.

[2]Emanuel J. Mason and William J. Bramble, <u>Understanding and Conducting Research/Applications in Educational and Behavioral Sciences</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1978), pp. 34-35.

[3]Deobold van Dalen, <u>Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction</u>, 4th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1979), p. 294.

[4]Barry M. Franklin, "The Social Efficiency Movement Reconsidered: Curriculum Change in Minneapolis, 1917-1950," <u>Curriculum Inquiry</u> 12 (1982): 10.

[5] E.P. Thompson, "On History, Sociology and Historical Relevance," _British Journal of Sociology_ 27 (Sept. 1976): 393.

[6] Lynn McKinney and Ian Westbury, "Stability and Change in the Public Schools of Gary, Indiana, 1940-1970," in _Case Studies in Curriculum Change_, ed. William A. Reid and Decker F. Walker (Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975), p. 11.

[7] March Beach, "History of Education," _Review of Educational Research_ 39 (1969): 563.

[8] Beach, 563.

[9] William W. Cutler III, "Oral History: Its Nature and Uses for Educational History," _History of Education Quarterly_ 11 (Summer 1971): 186; Carolyn Oiler, "The Phenomenological Approach in Nursing Research," _Nursing Research_ 31 (May-June 1982): 178; Myrtle P. Matejski, "Humanities: The Nurse and Historical Research," _Image_ 11 (Oct. 1979): 81.

[10] Arthur D. Hall and R.E. Fagen, "Definition of System," _General Systems_ 1 (1956): 21.

[11] K.E. Shaw, "Negotiating Curriculum Change in a College of Education," in _Case Studies in Curriculum Change_, ed. William A. Reid and Decker F. Walker (Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975), pp. 57; 82.

[12] Gertrude Torres and Marjorie Stanton, _Curriculum Process in Nursing: A Guide to Curriculum Development_ (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1982), p. 3; Em Olivia Bevis, _Curriculum Building in Nursing: A Process Approach_, 3rd ed. (St. Louis: The C.V. Mosby Company, 1982), p. vii; Mary R. Burton, "The Process of Curriculum Revision," _Nursing Outlook_ 22 (1974); 314.

[13] Louis Gottschalk, _Understanding History: A Primer of Historical Method_, 2nd ed. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1969), p. 53.

[14] Robert Jones Shafer, _A Guide to Historical Method_, 3rd ed. (Homewood, Il.: Dorsey Press, 1980), pp. 91-93.

[15] Bevis, p. 66.

[16] Van Dalen, pp. 29-30.

[17] Janet Foster and Julia Sheppard, "Archives and the History of Nursing," in _Rewriting Nursing History_, ed. Celia Davies (Totowa, N.J.: Barnes and Noble, 1980), p. 200.

[18] Theresa E. Christy, "The Methodology of Historical Research," _Nursing Research_ 24 (1975): 190.

[19]Gottschalk, p. 118; Cutler, p. 186.

[20]Christy, 191.

[21]Gottschalk, pp. 150-53.

[22]Jan Vancina, Oral Tradition: A Study of Historical Methodology, trans. and ed. H.M. Wright (Chicago: Aldine Publishing, 1973), p. 50; Van Dalen, pp. 32-35.

[23]Thad Sitton, George L. Mehaffey, and O.L. Davis, Jr., Oral History: A Guide for Teachers and Others (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1983), p. 127.

[24]Shafer, pp. 190-91.

CHAPTER IV
THE SUPRASYSTEM

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to identify and describe the suprasystem that was studied. The suprasystem is the world and the events occurring from 1940 through 1980, including happenings in nursing education. The system is Barry University, at that time known as Barry College. The subsystem is the Barry College School of Nursing and the faculty and students who were involved in the growth and change in the school from 1953 to 1980. Therefore, this chapter includes a brief summary of the events of the years 1940-1980, including factors related to nursing education. Chapter V describes the history of Barry College and its School of Nursing. Chapter VI is a chronological description of the growth and development of the Barry College School of Nursing from 1953 to 1980. Chapter VII, Summary and Conclusions, includes a detailed answer to each of the questions posed in Chapter I, an analysis of the system's characteristics found at Barry College/University, and the influences of the suprasystem, system, and subsystem upon each other. Chapter VII concludes with a section that suggests some research which could increase understanding of educational change.

World War II

In 1940, the world was under a threat of war. The fighting began when Japan attacked China in 1937 and Germany invaded Poland in 1939. These localized conflicts expanded until they merged to form an immense global war which involved most of the world's major powers and many smaller countries on both sides of the conflict. The central issue was expansion of Germany and Japan, who were called the Axis.[1]

In the United States, there was a tendency toward isolationism. However, many Americans supported the national interests of the countries from which their ancestors had emigrated. There was widespread debate about possible U.S. involvement in the war. Despite President Franklin D. Roosevelt's warnings that Japan and Germany were a threat to United States security, American public sentiment did not favor entering the war until after Japan bombed Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on December 7, 1941.[2]

Economically, the crisis abroad began to lift the world, including the United States, out of the prolonged 1930s depression. Manufacture and shipment of war materials and ammunition provided employment for many persons who had previously been unemployed or engaged in government-sponsored work projects. When the United States entered the war in 1941, many young men entered the armed forces. At the same time, many other men and women went to work in war-related industries.[3]

From 1939 on, the war spread rapidly. In May 1940, Germany invaded France and, in June of that year, Italy joined Germany in the attack on France. In September 1940, Germany began bombing London. Slowly, American public opinion changed to favor United States (U.S.) aid to its

allies, France and Great Britain. After the United States entered the war, it spread from Europe to the Mediterranean and North Africa and in the Pacific to China, Korea, Vietnam, and many of the Pacific islands.[4]

During World War II, military leaders exercised great influence on foreign policy, but the postwar ramifications of their war policies were seldom considered. United States' President Roosevelt and Great Britain's Prime Minister Winston Churchill led a campaign to convince their countries' people of the rightness and justice of the allies' war efforts. Roosevelt effectively used radio broadcasts to convince the American people of this. Many manufacturing companies converted from civilian goods production to defense efforts. This caused severe shortages and rationing of many foods and other items such as shoes and gasoline. Patriotism was widespread, most families purchased war bonds to help finance the war, and war stamps were sold to school children.[5]

At the beginning of World War II, most graduate nurses worked either in their client's homes as private duty nurses, in hospitals as head nurses or supervisors, or in public health nursing. The hospital nurses spent much of their time supervising nursing students who provided most of the direct patient care.

During World War II, nursing and medicine were radically changed when trauma care and the use of penicillin dramatically improved the casualty survival rate. Nurses in the military services achieved commissioned officer rank which they needed to supervise corpsmen and other nonnursing personnel. By gaining managerial power, these military nurses moved nursing toward more professional autonomy and more responsible managerial positions.[6]

As more and more nurses joined the military, there occurred a
shortage of nursing personnel in civilian hospitals. Congress funded
programs to encourage inactive nurses to return to nursing and founded
the Cadet Nurse Corps to provide government scholarships for nursing
students. The Cadet Nurse Corps was the largest nursing education
program ever implemented. Beginning in 1943, approximately 170,000
nursing students were enrolled in the Cadet Nurse Corps, which was an
important catalyst for the improvement of nursing education. Faculty
qualifications were upgraded, as were curricula. The length of the
course was shortened from thirty-six to thirty months. Federal funding
enabled participating schools to improve their facilities and to finance
faculty education.[7] Thus, war, government pressure, and patriotic
emotions facilitated drastic changes in nursing education that thirty
years of committee studies and recommendations had been unable to
effect.

By 1943, Russia (USSR) had entered the war as an ally of Britain
and the United States. The tide of the European war began to favor the
Allies as they attacked Germany and Italy from the east, north, and
west. The war continued throughout 1943 and 1944, but by 1945, the end
was in sight. So, the leaders of the United States, Great Britain, and
Russia met at Yalta to plan war strategy and postwar treatment of
liberated allies. The United States proposed an organization to work
for world peace. Roosevelt believed that the USSR would cooperate in
the postwar plans, but the Soviet leaders remained secretive and
suspicious.

Although he was easily reelected to his fourth term in 1944, President Roosevelt was in poor health due to his age and the pressure of wartime leadership. He died on April 2, 1945, and Vice President Harry S. Truman became president.[8] Although Truman carried on many of Roosevelt's domestic economic reform policies, in foreign policy his view of the Soviets differed from Roosevelt's. Truman did not trust the Soviets, particularly Premier Joseph Stalin. Several authors, including Sherwin, suggested that the United States' decision to resort to the atomic bombing of Japan was not so much an attempt to end the war quickly as it was a strategy to intimidate the Soviets in order to make postwar relations favor the United States.[9]

The war in Europe ended with Germany's unconditional surrender to the Allies on May 8, 1945. The United States dropped atomic bombs on Japan on August 6 and 9, 1945, and the Japanese surrendered unconditionally on August 14, 1945.

Soon after World War II ended, relations between the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) degenerated into a "cold war." The Soviets wanted to control Eastern Europe and the eastern portion of defeated Germany. The United States opposed Russia's domination because the Soviets would not guarantee free elections. Thus began the "cold war" between the USSR and the western allies, Great Britain, France, and the United States, that persists to this day.[10]

During World War II, the economy of the United States was dominated by government regulations designed to insure sufficient resources to support the war effort. Many of the war-created federal agencies were staffed with executives from industry who understood the technology

needed by the war effort.   After the war, many high-ranking former military officers became employed in government agencies and in private industrial corporations.   Thus began a long alliance among government, the military, and industry which had great influence on economic policy and events.[11]

Postwar economics was dominated by severe inflation which occurred when war price controls were discontinued. President Truman's proposed legislation to continue price controls failed to pass Congress. Truman also introduced legislation designed to prevent strikes and their economic impact, but this, too, failed to pass.

In 1947, the President proclaimed the "Truman Doctrine," a program to assist countries who resisted communist domination.   Then, in 1948, Truman instituted the Marshall Plan, named for World War II hero General George Marshall. The Marshall Plan was a comprehensive program for the reconstruction of Western Europe.   Although much of Europe was rebuilt with American assistance, Russian expansion continued in Eastern Europe, namely in Czechoslovakia and Poland. In response, the United States and the major noncommunist European nations formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1949.

On the domestic front, early civil rights activity occurred in Harlem in March 1941, when the Reverend Adam Clayton Powell, Jr., led a bus boycott to protest the exclusion of Blacks from employment in the New York City mass transportation system as drivers and mechanics. Powell's Abyssinnian Baptist Church became one of the boycott head-quarters. Powell insisted that only nonviolent tactics would convince the white-dominated transportation union to support Black demands.

Powell was elected to the New York City Council in November 1941 and was later elected to the U.S. House of Representatives. In May 1941, encouraged by Powell's success in the bus boycott, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) launched a nationwide protest against defense industries who refused to hire Blacks.[12]

At home, Truman supported and advanced the Civil Rights movement when he ordered desegregation of the armed forces and encouraged the U.S. Justice Department to support Blacks' civil rights legal actions. Moreover, Truman was the first president since post-Civil War Reconstruction to introduce civil rights legislation into Congress.[13]

In 1944, the U.S. Congress passed the Serviceman's Readjustment Act, popularly known as the GI Bill. The Act included job placement services, unemployment benefits, mortgage guarantees, and educational benefits designed to help returning service personnel readjust to civilian life and become productive civilian workers. After the war, access to a college education came to be viewed as necessary for occupational success. The GI Bill opened higher education to many who previously had been unable to attend college due to lack of financial resources. Veterans flocked to college campuses. By the fall of 1945, approximately eight-eight thousand veterans had enrolled in college under the GI Bill. Nationwide enrollment increased to approximately 1,013,000 veterans by fall, 1946.[14]

These veteran-students radically changed campus life. They were serious students who attended classes from early morning until late evening. Their academic performance was good. Many were married, so

they lived in quonset housing with their wives. Some had children. They accepted larger classes, often with graduate-student instructors. Many veterans graduated and found satisfying careers while others continued their educations in graduate and professional schools.[15]

Catholics and the War

The Roman Catholic Church is a worldwide religious organization, one of many religious bodies who call themselves Christian. Catholics believe that their church was founded during the Roman Empire. The structures of the Catholic Church evolved slowly over many centuries. Catholic missionaries came to North America with the early explorers and colonists. Succeeding waves of European immigrants brought their Catholicism with them to the United States. As the American Catholic Church grew, its hierarchy came to include a wide range of agencies such as schools, hospitals, orphanages, and charities to minister to their members. Most of these were affiliated with one of the many religious orders of men and women which grew along with the church.[16]

During World War II, the American Catholic church supported the war effort and encouraged patriotism. Hennessey estimated that between 25 and 35 percent of the United States Armed Forces personnel were Catholics. In fact, patriotic support of the war carried over into religious pluralism when most American religions expressed solidarity in their support of the war effort. As the war concluded, the Catholic hierarchy became concerned about the fate of Roman Catholics in those Eastern European countries which fell under Russian occupation. Such bishops as Jozsef Mindzenty in Hungary and Alojzije Sepinac in

Yugoslavia were martyred for their beliefs. Many American Catholics became militantly anticommunist during the 1950s.[17]

As the 1940s came to a close, the "cold war" was brewing in Europe and in Asia. In the United States, the Civil Rights Movement was intensifying, with federal legislation and activity in the courts. In education, many World War II veterans received schooling with the help of GI benefits and began occupational and professional careers.

The Cold War

At the end of World War II, large numbers of servicemen had returned to civilian life accustomed to a greatly improved level of preventive and curative health care. The government, as part of its postwar recovery plan, funded federal grants for surveying health needs and for the construction of hospitals and health centers. Unfortunately, many of the nurses who had been active in the war effort retired, and there were not enough nurses available to staff the newly built health facilities. As the 1950s began, the federal government began seeking ways to attract more women into nursing.[18]

In the United States, the "cold war" was manifested by widespread anticommunist feeling and pervasive suspicion toward "Communists." At its height, this attitude was directed at anyone who espoused progressive ideas or advocated change. United States Republic Senator Joseph McCarthy, a lifelong practicing Catholic, led a U.S. Senate investigation of Communist infiltration in the State Department and other key government agencies. At the state and local levels, there was also great suspicion. Anyone who advocated change was suspected of

disseminating Communist ideas.   By 1950, twenty-six states had passed laws requiring teachers to sign a loyalty oath. These oaths contained bans against "teaching or advocating un-American doctrines."[19]

The McCarthy hearings, intended to investigate and expose subversives, attracted a great deal of publicity. Many teachers and government officials were dismissed as a result of these investigations. When the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Unamerican Activities (HCUA) focused on university professors and administrators, there were widespread firings and adoption of loyalty oaths to ward off investigation by HCUA. Many academicians perceived these investigations as threats to free speech and academic freedom. Lawsuits seeking invalidation of the firings and loyalty oaths followed, and by 1952 the courts had overturned them.[20]

World War II hero Dwight D. Eisenhower was elected president in 1952, at the height of the anticommunist furor. After that, McCarthy gradually lost public support, largely due to the excesses seen on his televised hearings. In 1954, the Senate voted to censure McCarthy, and he rapidly lost his status as a national figure. As the war in Korea wound down and Eisenhower's moderate conservatism reassured the American people, anticommunist feeling became focused on eliminating controversial books and ideas rather than on attacking individuals. Some authors believed that this fear of being accused led to the climate of extreme conformity that characterized the 1950s.[21]

Another important event of the early 1950s was the war in Korea. The United States had administered the Japanese territory of Korea as part of its post-World War II occupation of Japan. The Allies could not

agree on the unification of North and South Korea because of the competing political ideologies of the communist industrial north and the anticommunist agricultural south. By 1949, the U.S. and U.S.S.R. had withdrawn their occupying troops and left behind civilian and military advisors to assist the new government. Hostility between the North and South Korean troops gradually increased and escalated into full-scale war by 1950. The war raged on for three years, with troops fighting back and forth across the Korean peninsula. President Eisenhower had been elected in 1952, partly because he promised to end the Korean war. Finally, after much negotiation, an armistice was signed on July 27, 1953, but South Korea refused to participate or sign the agreement. Politically and militarily, the Korean war ended in a stalemate which continues today, as North and South Korea watch each other across a two-and-one-half mile demilitarized zone along the thirty-eighth parallel.

The Korean war also added a military dimension to American foreign policy. This was Eisenhower's policy of containment. After the Korean armistice, Eisenhower continued to work to contain communist expansion. In 1954, he refused to commit U.S. troops to support the French in Vietnam. Instead, the president traveled to a series of "summit" meetings with Soviet premier Nikita Krushchev. The purpose of these meetings was to decrease Soviet-American hostility. The "cold war" became temporarily less intense, although Soviet-backed regimes ruled in Hungary and Poland, and the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) covertly established anticommunist regimes in Iran (1953), Guatemala (1954), Korea (1954), and Indonesia (1958) and also began to plot against Cuban dictator Fidel Castro.[22]

Despite Eisenhower's moderate conservatism and expressed intention to have a balanced budget, the 1950s were characterized by a sluggish economy, mild inflation, rising unemployment, and periodic recessions. Federal spending was decreased for a time when the Korean war ended, but the Russian launching of Sputnik I in 1957 stimulated decades of increased government spending for defense. The "crisis in education," also precipitated by Sputnik, involved a national reexamination of education and unprecedented federal funding of educational programs.

Eisenhower became a popular hero during World War II. His broad grin and optimistic face captured the American imagination and, along with his record as a strong and decisive military leader, helped him to be twice elected president. He remained a popular president throughout his first and second terms, and he supported Vice President Richard M. Nixon's bid for the presidency in 1959-1960.[23]

The Civil Rights Movement

The Civil Rights Movement gained momentum during the 1950s with a legal campaign to abolish segregation. Law suits were filed seeking admission of qualified blacks to public professional schools. After the U.S. Supreme Court ordered admission of qualified blacks to the University of Missouri Law School (1948), the University of Oklahoma (1950), and the University of Texas Law School (1950), the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) turned its attention to a direct challenge of state-enforced segregation in the public elementary and secondary schools. In 1947, Archbishop Joseph E. Ritter of St. Louis ordered Catholic Webster College to accept all

qualified Catholic students. A series of law suits culminated in 1954 and 1955 with Supreme Court rulings ordering the implementation of desegregation in the public schools. Desegregation of Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1957 was the beginning of a long, controversial, and strife-ridden process of public school desegregation. President Eisenhower and, later, President John F. Kennedy ordered federal troops into the involved communities to enforce court-ordered desegregation.[24]

After many unsuccessful attempts, Congress finally passed a civil rights bill in 1956, the first civil rights law since the 1870s. The Civil Rights Law of 1956 created a civil rights commission in the executive branch and a civil rights division in the U.S. Justice Department to provide the government with a mechanism to sue on behalf of blacks who had been denied voting rights. After the desegregation showdown in Little Rock in 1957, there followed a series of major desegregation conflicts which continued until the mid-1960s.[25]

Transformation of this civil rights activity into a widespread popular movement began in Montgomery, Alabama, in December 1955, when Rosa Parks, a Black seamstress, was arrested for refusing to yield her seat on a crowded public bus to a white man. In response to Park's arrest, the Black community of Montgomery boycotted the city's public transportation system. One year later, the U.S. Supreme Court declared segregation in public transportation unconstitutional. The events in Montgomery also produced a charismatic leader, the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., who led the Civil Rights Movement into the turbulent 1960s.[26]

Educational Developments of the 1950s and 1960s

Although desegregation was to affect the educational system profoundly during the 1960s, the Russian launch of Sputnik I also had a long-lasting effect on education. From the end of World War II until Sputnik I (1957), the principal aim of most education had been to help students, including returning veterans, prepare to become productive citizens and competent workers. Ravitch characterized the early 1950s as "culturally bland," with a glorification of "middle class values."[27]

The late 1940s and 1950s were a time of growth in the American Catholic Church. From 1940 until 1960, the number of Roman Catholics in the United States grew from twenty-one to forty-two million. There was a strong Catholic spirit, members were proud of their church, and they wanted to give their children a Catholic education.[28]

There were many who wished to enter the religious life, so seminaries and convent motherhouses were established all over the country. In 1954, there were approximately 158,000 women in religious orders. They operated the Church's extensive network of educational institutions, hospitals, and charitable institutions. As the educational level of the general population rose, college education of the sisters became increasingly important. Many of the sisters who taught in elementary and high schools attended Catholic women's colleges during the summer. Many Catholic families also wanted their daughters to attend Catholic women's colleges to prepare for Catholic womanhood.[29]

Until the 1960s, Catholic colleges and most other Catholic institutions were controlled by the religious congregations who owned them. Many were centrally controlled by boards of trustees who were appointed

by the superior of the congregation. The administrators of the college and most of the faculty were also members of the religious order. This legal control and centralized administrative structure usually produced a disciplined, highly controlled organization that emphasized obedience, order, and loyalty. Sometimes these organizational norms conflicted with the educational institution's stated purpose of encouraging intellectual growth and critical thinking.[30]

In 1953, the U.S. Office of Education became part of the newly created U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This was done to strengthen federal control of education. A series of national conferences followed to plan for anticipated expansion of education at all levels. These conferences included the Council for Financial Aid to Education in 1953, the White House Conference on Education in 1955, and the President's Commission on Education Beyond High School in 1956. They predicted an enrollment in higher education of 6.8 million by 1970.[31]

The Soviet launch of Sputnik I, the first artificial earth satellite, shocked Americans into the perception that their science instruction as inferior to the Russians' and created yet another crisis in education. Educational reformers argued for more rigorous education at all levels. United States citizens from diverse political backgrounds agreed that the national interest depended upon improving the quality of America's schools. In 1958, Congress passed the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) to provide grants, loans, and fellowships to encourage the study of science, mathematics, and foreign languages. Science was highly respected and was expected to solve many financial,

safety, health, and defense problems.[32] The Carnegie and Ford Foundations supported the study and founding of comprehensive high schools intended to meet the needs of all youths by offering general education in English, science, and social studies and also by offering both college preparatory and vocational options. The National Science Foundation funded curriculum revision projects to revise high school physics, chemistry, biology, mathematics, and social science curricula.

Curriculum reformers shared a belief that innovative curriculum practices such as team teaching, flexible scheduling, programmed instruction, and discovery learning would make learning more interesting for, and accessible to, all students. This educational growth was also seen at the postsecondary level. University science and teacher education departments flourished, and as the 1960s dawned, many universities expanded to become research as well as teaching institutions.[33]

Nursing Education

In nursing education, the emphasis on science was manifested by recognition of the need to move nursing education from predominantly hospital-based, vocational education to college-based professional education. This movement had begun earlier, in 1923, with the Goldmark Report, a national survey of nursing. This and subsequent reports addressed both nursing practice and education. They recommended improving nursing student and faculty educational qualifications, strengthening the natural and social science content of the nursing curriculum, reducing the number of hours of student clinical experience,

and improving the financial base of nursing education programs through endowed funds.[34]

The World War II demand for nurses effected some needed change, but not the recommended shift to collegiate education. In 1948, as a result of another national study of nursing, Esther Lucille Brown emphasized the need for collegiate nursing education to produce a scientific, humanistic nurse who possessed self-discipline, intellectual curiosity, and critical thinking. Brown recommended that preparation for beginning professional nursing be the baccalaureate degree, that nursing be stratified into professional and practical levels, that the roles of nurse and other health team members be clarified, and that communications between them be improved. The Brown report generated much discussion and controversy. The outcome was improvement of many nursing education programs and closing of the weaker ones. At the same time, accreditation began to evolve as a force for change.[35]

The National Nursing Accrediting Service (NNAS) was established in 1948 to specify minimum national standards for nursing education. In a NNAS survey of nursing schools, 1,156 schools reported how they compared with other schools on such program characteristics as finances, educational standards, and curriculum. The NNAS then used this information to set minimum standards for accreditation of nursing education programs. In 1962, the NNAS became part of the National League for Nursing (NLN), and it has continued to be a positive force for improvement in nursing education.

Establishment of the State Board Test Pool in 1938 also helped to set minimum standards for nursing education and practice. Standardized

examinations were not developed until 1945. By 1950, all state boards of nursing participated in standardized testing to assure that all candidates for nursing licensure had graduated from a board-approved school and could demonstrate minimum nursing competency as measured by the standardized test. The state boards of nursing required schools of nursing to adhere to minimum standards, and, as a result, many marginal schools had to improve their programs or close.[36]

Nursing education and practice were further stratified with the addition of nursing assistants and practical nurses to perform duties previously undertaken by nursing students. In 1951, Dr. Mildred Montag completed and published a study entitled The Education of Nursing Technicians. Montag differentiated between technical nursing, which she called implementing the decisions of others, and professional nursing, which she defined as including complex nursing functions and decision making. She proposed that professional nurses be educated at the baccalaureate level and technical nurses in two-year associate degree (AD) programs in collegiate institutions.[37] Subsequently, experimental associate degree programs were established, and these graduates demonstrated their ability to perform as assisting nurses.

In 1959, the Kellogg Foundation funded associate degree programs in community colleges in New York, California, and Florida. Between 1959 and 1964, when the Kellogg project ended, more than one hundred schools received assistance.[38] By 1970, AD graduates comprised approximately 40 percent of all nursing graduates.[38]

Baccalaureate nursing education grew more slowly than associate degree education. In 1940, seventy-six schools of nursing offered both

baccalaureate degree and nursing diploma options. In 1949, the five-year curriculum dominated baccalaureate nursing education. By that year, there were two-hundred-one baccalaureate nursing programs with approximately ten thousand registered nurses enrolled as full- or part-time students. While the R.N.-B.S.N. programs were originally separate from the generic baccalaureate programs, nursing education moved, during the 1950s and 1960s, increasingly toward one curriculum for both generic and registered nurse students.[39]

These changes in nursing and nursing education were facilitated by many studies of nursing and nursing education; by the state boards of nursing; by the National League for Nursing (NLN) Accreditation Standards; by the American Nurses' Association (ANA), particularly its Position Paper of 1956; and by federal funding. Collegiate Nursing education became increasingly more desirable as the general education level rose and as increasingly more sophisticated technology was developed. As we shall see, the explosion of federal educational funding during the 1960s included nursing education.[40]

The Turbulent 1960s

The 1960s began on an optimistic note with a presidential campaign which ended when John F. Kennedy defeated Richard Nixon by a narrow margin. Kennedy, a forceful activist leader and popular president, stirred the country in his 1961 inaugural address when he sounded cold war themes and promised that the U.S. space effort would put a man on the moon by the end of the decade. Kennedy's leadership was unique in that he was the first president to use television effectively to win

popular support for his anticommunist foreign policies and to promote his progressive domestic housing, health, and civil rights agendas.[41]

The Indochina peninsula had been the scene of turmoil and unrest since the end of World War II, when the French occupation forces administered the area. In 1954, the peninsula was divided into North and South Vietnam. As in Korea, the Northern area was under communist control, supported by China and the USSR, and the Southern portion was anticommunist, supported by France and the United States. President Kennedy increased military equipment and troop support so that by November 1963 the United States had sent sixteen thousand military personnel to Vietnam. However, this was considered to be only moderate support when compared to the United States' later involvement in the Vietnam Conflict.[42]

In foreign affairs, President Kennedy supported United States' aid to the CIA-supported counter revolutionary forces who invaded Cuba at the Bay of Pigs in April 1961. The failure of this invasion greatly embarrassed Kennedy, who assumed responsibility for it. East-West hostility resulted in the division of Berlin, Germany, and the erection of a wall between the eastern and western zones of the divided city. The Berlin wall became a graphic symbol of the "cold war" and remains so today. President Kennedy used the "Berlin crisis" to persuade Congress to increase defense spending.

The most tense time of the Kennedy administration occurred when United States intelligence discovered that the USSR was building offensive missile sites in Cuba, only ninety miles from South Florida. As a result of his discovery the US prepared for war and, as tension

grew, blockaded Cuba to deter Russian shipments of offensive weapons. President Kennedy negotiated a settlement to prevent war between the United States and Cuba. Kennedy continued to bolster US defenses, while at the same time he negotiated a treaty with the USSR which barred atmospheric testing of atomic weapons.[43]

Economically, the 1960s began with a mild recession. Kennedy attempted to stimulate the economy with a tax cut to help the middle class and with health and social legislation designed to assist the poor. Most of Kennedy's domestic programs failed to pass Congress, but his Peace Corps and Alliance For Progress, designed to provide economic and development aid to Central and South America and Africa, were widely publicized and supported. Kennedy's presidency ended tragically when he was assassinated in Dallas, Texas, on November 22, 1963.[44]

Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson, an experienced U.S. Senator, became president after John F. Kennedy died. Many of Kennedy's domestic social programs such as the Economic Opportunity Act (1964) and the Civil Rights Act (1964) were skillfully steered through Congress by Johnson. The Economic Opportunity Act and other social legislation provided funding for minority health and education programs, while the Civil Rights Act provided the legal foundation for the fight against racial and sexual discrimination.[45]

Johnson was reelected by a landslide in 1964, giving him a mandate for the "Great Society," his domestic social program. "Great Society" programs included Medicare, federal aid for elderly health care, and the creation of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

Meanwhile, Johnson began escalating the war in Vietnam. By the end of 1965 there were 180,000 American troops in Vietnam and by 1968, 500,000. Despite massive troop involvement in the war and the bombing of North Vietnam, the United States and South Vietnamese failed to win the war. Moreover, the cost of the war caused increased inflation and severe criticism at home, especially among college students. This, along with increasing racial tension, deflected popular attention from Johnson's successful domestic programs, and he subsequently lost much of his electoral support. Therefore, in March 1968, Johnson announced that he would cease the bombing in Vietnam and that he would not run for reelection. By the end of the Johnson administration, optimistic and confident America had been replaced by a nation torn by severe internal struggles.[46]

The Civil Rights Movement gained momentum throughout the 1960s. There were "sit-ins" to desegregate public lunch counters and other facilities. Freedom bus rides dramatized the inhumanity of racial discrimination. The University of Mississippi was forced to desegregate in 1962 and the University of Alabama in 1963. Many desegregation showdowns were dramatically depicted in televised accounts which showed nonviolent Black demonstrators juxtaposed against screaming white mobs, with federal of U.S. National Guard troops preventing violent confrontations.

The struggle for desegregation continued throughout the 1960s. However, segregation, the "southern way of life," persisted in many areas despite token desegregation in public transportation and public schools. The popular base of the early Civil Rights Movement expanded

rapidly among Blacks. The Black churches provided widespread support for the movement, and their Christian ethics reinforced Martin Luther King's Ghandian philosophy of nonviolence. Frequently televised news reports continued to emphasize the cruelty of undisguised racism, which came to be viewed as a challenge to American democratic beliefs.

The US Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited discrimination in employment and established the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. This act also banned discrimination in all public accommodations connected with interstate commerce including restaurants, hotels, and theaters. The US Voting Rights Act, enacted in 1965, forbade discrimination in voter registration, and the Civil Rights Act of 1968 extended these guarantees to housing and real estate.[47]

The Civil Rights Movement also played an important role in arousing the conscience of many Americans, including many college youths. White students poured much energy into the civil rights demonstrations. As Blacks gained legislative support and President Johnson escalated the Vietnam war, many civil rights activists switched their protests to the Vietnam war, to the involvement of many universities in military research, and to environmental pollution.[48]

During the mid- and late-1960s, while many whites continued to resist desegregation, many Blacks turned their interest from desegregation to advancing the interests of Blacks as a minority. The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) supported Black nationalism. Black nationalists demanded preferential treatment for Blacks in hiring as reparation for past discrimination. In 1963, and for several years thereafter, urban

racial disorders turned America's attention from segregation to poverty. Urban poverty was perceived as a Black problem because the percentage of Blacks who lived in cities increased from 43 percent in 1950 to 56 percent in 1966, while the white urban population decreased from 34 percent to 27 percent. Moreover, racial discrimination persisted in the cities.[49]

In April 1965, after a brief debate, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), aimed at improving the schooling of poor children, easily passed both the U.S. Senate and House of Representatives and was signed by President Johnson. This law assumed that improving the education of poor children would greatly help to eliminate poverty. As we shall see, although ESEA had widespread effect upon education, it did little to improve the lives of most poor children.[50]

The ESEA's antipoverty formula allocated funding to a majority of the nation's school districts and even to some disadvantaged Catholic schools. Varying amounts of money were allocated to individual districts based on the number of poor children in the particular district. Despite receiving large amounts of federal money for various aspects of their schooling, children in predominately Black schools in poor neighborhoods scored lower on various educational achievement measures than did Black or White children in schools in more affluent neighborhoods. Although ESEA forbade sending federal dollars to any segregated school district, many districts received funds by merely filing a desegregation plan whether or not it was implemented. Despite widespread busing, many schools experienced only token desegregation. The lack of clearly indicated improvement in predominately Black schools

led to renewed charges of discrimination. By 1967, many critics rejected the assimilationist goals of integrated schooling and renewed their cries for Black separation and ethnic awareness.[51]

At the college and university levels, the social idealism of students gradually shifted from civil rights to antiwar involvement. When peaceful demonstrations failed to influence university administrators and government officials, student protests turned from peaceful demonstrations to acts of civil disorder. Antiwar demonstrations began at the University of California at Berkeley during the winter of 1964-65 and gradually spread across the United States. By 1970, students in almost every major university had engaged in some form of civil disobedience. These young rebels, both Black and White, responded to their country's flaws with their own "counter-culture," as manifested in their music, style of dress, vocabulary, sexual practices, and use of drugs. Indeed, the youth "counter-culture" challenged any institution which attempted to assert authority over young adults. Student dissatisfaction and unrest were further exacerbated by the assassinations of Martin Luther King, Jr., in April and of Robert F. Kennedy in June 1968. King and Kennedy were both regarded as heroes by many young activists. Nightly news on television reported both student demonstrations and the Vietnam war. These reports further increased the polarity between the young demonstrators and adults. Many universities were closed for a time until the demonstrations subsided. However, sporadic student demonstrations continued into the early 1970s.[52]

During the 1960s, the overall climate of change also affected the American Catholic Church and its educational institutions. The Church's

self-examination began during the 1950s, with international meetings of religious in Rome. The early discussions concerned improvement of the educational preparation of those doing religious work. This questioning expanded to include theological questions and even outdated customs that could possibly be alienating the nuns and priests from those they served. These concerns were officially debated during the Second Vatican Council. The Council met in Rome each autumn from 1962 through 1965. The American bishops participated in many discussions which included all aspects of the Church's role in the world.

The general climate of change in the world and in the Catholic Church profoundly affected its many orders of religious women. Almost all religious literature written prior to the Second Vatican Council was written by men. Beginning in 1954, the Sister Formation Movement held annual meetings and published the Sister Formation Bulletin. This group studied many aspects of the sisters' religious lives including the nature of religious government, the psychological problems of religious life, and the socialization of novice sisters. Although many of the orders' leaders perceived the climate of change as an opportunity for spiritual growth, others felt uncomfortable about changing their lives. Sisters were encouraged to examine their spirituality and commitment to the religious life in light of the Catholic Church's mission in the modern world. Kolmer stated that resignations from the orders began to increased in the early 1950s. Beginning in 1966, the number of women entering the orders began to decrease.[53]

Changes in the world and in the Roman Catholic Church and its many organizations were reflected on the campuses of most American Catholic

colleges and universities. Competition with public colleges and universities forced the Catholic colleges to examine themselves and their mission. Changes in the religious orders that had previously dominated the Catholic colleges' faculties caused a decrease in the number of priests and nuns and a corresponding increase in lay faculty. Many Catholic colleges found that their parochialism was outdated; thus, they had to change enough to maintain academic freedom and attract students but no so much as to lose their spirituality and mission as Catholic. Additionally, many orders who had previously given financial support to their colleges decreased or completely withdrew their financial contributions when the colleges reorganized their governance structures.[54]

Thus, the Catholic Church and its many institutions experienced profound changes during the late 1950s and throughout the 1960s. These changes were manifested by unrest, growth, and substantial modifications in most Catholic colleges.

Collegiate nursing education continued its steady growth throughout the 1960s. The apprenticeship educational model slowly yielded to a professional model with a broader scientific foundation, better qualified faculty, and more accountability for nursing practice. Nurses began to work increasingly in nonhospital settings such as schools, industry, and public health agencies where their nursing practice was more independent than that of hospital nurses. As a result of this diversification of nursing practice, the public began to perceive a difference in the levels of nursing practice and in the education needed to practice in diverse settings. In order to improve the supply of

nurses, the United States Congress passed the first Nurse Training Act in 1956. This, and subsequent Nurse Training Acts in 1964, 1965, and 1971 and the Health Manpower Act of 1968, have provided funds to increase the number of graduate nurses and have supported nursing education's growth, particularly at the baccalaureate and master's degree levels.[55]

The 1970s--Unrest and Growth

As the 1970s began, the student demonstrations of the late 1960s continued to raise public consciousness and to stimulate public debate about many aspects of American life, including the Vietnam war and the value and utility of collegiate education. Many colleges and universities began to examine their governance procedures and to include students in their policymaking.

In 1970, the United States and the world were in an unsettled condition. There was war in Southeast Asia, worldwide inflation, and student unrest. Historians disagreed about the causes and events of the Vietnam war. One account stated that the war was a reaction to long-standing colonialism in the Far East and to disagreements among North, South, and Central Vietnam dating from 1858 and continuing to the 1960s. This historical view did not discount Communist designs on Vietnam, but it described the unsettled state in Vietnam as having multiple causes. The official American explanation was simplistic; it stated that North Vietnam was the aggressor in South Vietnam. This official line failed to consider other cultural and political forces involved. In 1976, Kolko put forth a world-systems view. He perceived United States

involvement in Vietnam as part of a worldwide strategy to keep rightist regimes in power. Regardless of perceived causes, the American public became increasingly disenchanted with the war.[58]

The involvement of the United States in the unpopular war in Vietnam impacted upon education in at least two ways: diversion of federal financial support that might have gone to education at all levels and reactive student demonstrations which disrupted campuses and decreased popular support for education.[59]

President Richard Nixon was elected in November 1968 and took office in January 1969. Nixon was very concerned with controlling the inflation caused by the tremendous military expenditure of the Vietnam war and the huge domestic spending of the Johnson administration. The Nixon administration adopted a policy of tight money and balanced federal budgets. This policy caused by an economic recession and high interest rates. In August 1971, Nixon implemented wage and price controls in an attempt to stabilize the economy. In 1972, revenue sharing, designed to decentralize spending by returning funds to state and local governments, was enacted. The corresponding decrease in federal funding to education forced retrenchment and reevaluation of higher education. In 1978, Pusey stated that a new cohesion grew out of this need to trim budgets and redefine institutional purposes for survival.[60]

Another domestic issue of the 1970s was the fight for minority rights. In addition to antiwar demonstrations, demonstrations for civil rights continued. Many young women became resentful of their perceived second-class role in society and began demonstrating for women's

rights.[61]   In 1972, Congress passed a constitutional amendment guaranteeing equal rights for women (ERA) and submitted it to the states for ratification.[62]

In foreign affairs, 1972 brought peace talks aimed at ending the Vietnam war and also visits by President Nixon to China in February and Russia in May of that year. At the end of each visit, the leaders announced a new era of cooperation in mutual trade. Russia and the United States also announced a policy of detente and new agreements in nuclear arms limitations.[63]

Following a series of unsuccessful escalations of the Asian war into Cambodia and Laos, the United States began "Vietnamization," return of the war to the Vietnamese. At the same time, peace talks continued in Paris, and, in January 1973, a ceasefire agreement was signed by the United States and the North and South Vietnamese. Although United States involvement gradually decreased, the Saigon regime continued fighting until 1975 to force the Viet Cong out of South Vietnam. The North Vietnamese continued their fierce combat and gradually tipped the balance of power against the South. After the major cities of Hue and DaNang fell in March 1975, the war ended when communist forces captured Saigon on April 30, 1975.[64]

In 1972, Richard Nixon ran for reelection and decisively defeated George McGovern. Nixon's second term was dominated by the Watergate scandal, which resulted from actions by his reelection committee. Investigation ultimately revealed burglary and widespread wiretapping of various Democrats' telephones by Nixon's allies. By July 1974, several of Nixon's closest advisors had been indicted and convicted of criminal

charges. In July 1974, the U.S. House of Representatives Judiciary Committee voted three articles of impeachment against the President, forcing him to admit the he had known about and participated in attempts to conceal the Watergate burglary. When these revelations caused widespread lack of support in Congress and throughout the country, Nixon resigned on August 8, 1974. He was succeeded by Vice President Gerald R. Ford.

President Ford was the first president not elected to the presidency nor to the vice presidency. Rather, Ford was appointed to the vice presidency by President Nixon when Vice President Spiro T. Agnew was forced to resign following charges of income tax evasion. Ford perceived that his first duty was to promote national healing and restore public confidence in the presidency. However, when President Ford pardoned former President Nixon on September 8, 1974, Ford lost considerable support.

In foreign affairs, Ford continued Nixon's pursuit of detente, nuclear arms agreements, and foreign trade. He retained Nixon's Secretary of State, Henry Kissinger, who continued to dominate foreign policy. Kissinger undertook many missions of "shuttle diplomacy" in the Middle East and Africa.[65]

The United States bicentennial celebration of 1975-76, the two-hundred year anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, dominated the domestic news from July 1975 until the end of 1976. Numerous commemorations including exhibits, pageants, parades, and other activities were held in almost every community in the country. Many foreign countries also participated in the joyous celebrations.

Another major theme of the 1970s was the continuing development of many types of technology. The advances of the 1960s had culminated with the landing of two Americans on the moon in July 1969. Both the United States and Russia had established satellite communications networks linking the continents and had sent unmanned space explorations to the vicinity of Venus and Mars. The nuclear weapons race continued despite previous limitations treaties. Radio and television communications increased the knowledge and sophistication of the people of most of the developed countries. Computer technology increased in speed and sophistication during the 1970s.[66]

The combination of the unpopular Vietnam war, the Watergate scandal, and increasing feelings of depersonalization in the face of technological advances contributed to an increasing general discontent with and mistrust of the government. Severe inflation and recession continued throughout the 1970s. The Ford administration tried to slow inflation by limiting spending for social programs, including educational programs.

Students personified the mood of disillusionment during the early 1970s. They expressed their dissatisfaction with many facets of American society: the Vietnam war, the Watergate scandal, environmental pollution, and their universities' cooperative research with the military and with industry. Joint faculty-student judicial bodies were formed in response to campus unrest. They advised university administrations on restoring order and handling disciplinary matters. STudents were given a larger part in college governance and in controlling their private lives. Public and private educational institutions began

cooperating in state coordinating groups in order to influence state educational policy and funding. The American Council on Education and the American Association for Higher Education began working together to influence federal policy.[67]

For the American Catholic Church and its colleges and universities, the early 1970s marked a continuation of changes begun after the Second Vatican Council. Preoccupation with such questions as academic freedom and equality of educational opportunity replaced the civil rights concerns of the 1960s. The charismatic movement, a revival of spirituality, started on the Duquesne University campus, spread to other Catholic universities, and then to such state-supported institutions as the University of Michigan and Michigan State University, and to communities throughout the United States.[68]

Many Catholic women's colleges had to fight to counteract the national trends toward secularization and coeducation, a fight complicated by the shift in faculty composition from priests and sisters to predominantly lay faculty. The challenge that Catholic women's colleges faced during the 1970s was that of survival in the secular world and, at the same time, that of making their religious mission relevant to modern students.[69]

In 1970, nursing practice and nursing education were beginning to be affected not only by the growth of the colleges and universities but also by increasingly complex health care technology and the general atmosphere of discontent in the United States. The National Commission for the Study of Nursing and Nursing Education (NCSNNE) was established as an independent study group by the ANA and the NLN to conduct a

comprehensive study of nursing and nursing education in the United States. There were twelve persons on the commission, three of whom were nurses. Jerome P. Lysaught was appointed director.

The commission's final report was published as a book entitled An Abstract for Action, often referred to as the Lysaught Report. This report reiterated many of the recommendations of earlier reports that nursing education continue to move from the hospital-based system to the two-level (AD and BSN) collegiate system. The Lysaught Report also recommended extensive research into nursing practice and education and improvement of financial incentives and working conditions to attract and retain sufficient nursing personnel to deliver quality health care in the future.[70]

After publication of An Abstract for Action in 1970, the NCSNNE turned its attention to implementing its recommendations. In his 1981 follow-up report, Action in Affirmation: Toward an Unambiguous Profession of Nursing, Lysaught examined changes in nursing practice and nursing education between 1973 and 1978 and progress in implementation of the commission's recommendations. Lysaught concluded that although progress had been made in implementing the recommendations, more research was needed to improve nursing's knowledge base, to improve patient care, to develop evaluation procedures to appraise basic and advanced nursing practice, and to develop improved financial compensation for excellent nursing practice.[71]

Lysaught emphasized that nursing must seek increased nonfederal financial support for nursing education and research. He reported that between 1973 and 1978, although there was "some growth in the receipt of

private funds,"[72] they were often intended for specific education or nursing care projects, not research. During these years, federal support for nursing research increased from three to six million dollars. However, federal funding declined sharply in 1979 with President Carter's veto of the Nurse Training Act.[73]

Lysaught also reported that in 1978, 61 percent of the BSN programs and 56 percent of the AD programs were involved in interinstitutional planning for articulation and educational mobility for students and that 78 percent of the reporting BSN programs had a systematic plan for inclusion of RNs in their programs. Nevertheless, some nursing education leaders remained unconvinced that these articulated programs provided quality BSN education. There was much controversy and discussion regarding the quality of the articulated RN-BSN programs.[74]

Lysaught also addressed curriculum change. He stated that, between 1970 and 1978, there was much innovation and experimentation aimed at nursing curriculum improvement. Many schools were concerned about previously unexamined characteristics of their curricula and were attempting to redesign their programs of study in anticipation of increasing demand for primary care/community health nurses and highly skilled intensive care nurses. Lysaught reported that, in 1977, 56 percent of associate degree and 61 percent of baccalaureate degree schools of nursing were involved in curriculum revision efforts.[75]

The effects of these national nursing education and research trends on one school, the Barry College School of Nursing, are examined later in this study.

<u>Summary</u>

This chapter has described the suprasystem, including pertinent world, Catholic, educational, nursing, and nursing educational events which occurred from 1940 to 1980. Many of the changes which occurred in nursing, general education, and nursing education were facilitated by national studies of education and nursing education, by the state boards of nursing licensure requirements, and by the National League for Nursing accreditation standards. Other changes were more directly related to world and national events such as wars, inflation, the development of technology, the ecumenical movement, and federal funding of education.

Subsequent chapters describe the history of Barry College and its School of Nursing and the process of curriculum revision undertaken by the School of Nursing between 1970 and 1976. In a final chapter, answers to the research questions posed in Chapter I are presented, and the interrelationships of the suprasystem, system, and subsystem are analyzed.

<u>Notes</u>

[1] <u>Academic American Encyclopedia</u>, 1981 ed., S.v. "World War II," by Louis S. Snyder; <u>Colliers Encyclopedia</u>, 1985 ed., S.v. "Roosevelt, Franklin Delano," by Walter Johnson; <u>Encyclopaedia Britannica Micropaedia</u>, 15th ed. (1982), S.v. "Roosevelt, Franklin Delano."

[2] Paul W. Schroeder, "The Axis Alliance and Japanese American Relations," in <u>Twentieth Century America: Recent Interpretations</u>, ed. Barton J. Bernstein and Allen J. Matuson (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1969), pp. 318-19.

[3]Jurgen Herbst, "High School and Youth in America," in Education and Social Structure in the Twentieth Century, ed. Walter Laquer and George L. Mosse (New York: Harper and Row, 1967), p. 176; Encyclopaedia Britannica Micropaedia, 15th ed. S.v. "Roosevelt, Franklin Delano."

[4]Encyclopaedia Britannica Micropaedia, 15th ed. S.v. "Roosevelt, Franklin Delano"; Shroeder, pp. 318-19.

[5]Encyclopaedia Britannica Micropaedia, 15th ed. S.V. "Roosevelt, Franklin Delano"; Collier's Encyclopedia, 1985 ed. s.v. "Roosevelt, Franklin Delano."

[6]Vern L. Bullough and Bonnie Bullough, The Care of the Sick: The Emergence of Modern Nursing (New York: Prodist, 1978), pp. 165-70.

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CHAPTER V
THE SYSTEM

Barry College: The Early Years, 1940-1969

Beginnings

Barry College, named for Bishop Patrick Barry, was chartered in 1940, the result of the efforts of three members of the Barry family, Bishop Patrick Barry of St. Augustine, Florida; his brother and sister, Monsignor William Barry of Miami Beach, Florida, and Mother Mary Gerald Barry, Superior General of the Adrian Dominican Sisters; and William Barry's friend, Mayor John G. Thompson of Miami Shores, Florida. Bishop Barry and Mother Gerald Barry both saw the need for a Catholic institution of higher education in Florida, because, at that time, there was no Catholic college for women south of Washington, D.C. Monsignor Barry asked his friend, Mayor Thompson, to help him select a suitable site for the college.[1]

Barry college was chartered as a nonprofit corporation with no capital stock. The building program was financed by donations from the Catholic church, the Adrian Dominican Congregation of Sisters, individual benefactors, and low-interest loans.[2]

Ground-breaking ceremonies were held on the Miami Shores campus on January 24, 1940. The first two buildings were a combination classroom and administration building and a residence hall. An additional

residence hall, a chapel, and a dining hall were added during that year, as funding was arranged.[3]

Three of the cofounders--Bishop Patrick Barry, Bishop of the Diocese of St. Augustine, which, at that time, included Dade County; Mother Mary Gerald Barry, Prioress of the Adrian Dominican Order; and Father William Barry, Pastor of St. Patrick's Catholic Church, Miami Beach--attended the cornerstone-laying ceremonies on June 20, 1940.[4] This was Bishop Barry's last formal public appearance. He died unexpectedly on August 12, 1940, "unable to witness the fulfillment of his dream, the opening of the first Catholic college in Florida."[5]

Barry College opened in September 1940, with an enrollment of forty-five students. The spacious forty-acre Miami Shores campus, with its imposing palm tree lined double entrance driveway, had two completed Spanish modern style buildings with covered outdoor walkways. The faculty strove to create a home-like environment in dormitories designed to house only thirty-five students and in a dining room in which "family style" meals were served.[6]

Administrative Structure

Barry College was chartered as a Catholic liberal arts college with three administrative divisions: 1) the Division of Studies, 2) the Division of Student Life, and 3) the Division of Business. The Division of Studies, supervised by the Academic Dean, Sister Mary deLellis Raftrey, O.P., included all activities related to the program of studies, while the Division of Student Life, also administered by Sister deLellis, was concerned with all nonstudy activities. The Division of

Business, administered by the Treasurer, Sister May Gonzaga Greene, O.P., conducted the financial affairs of the college.[7]

From 1940 until 1966, all officers and members of the Barry College Corporation were sisters of the Third Order of St. Dominic of the Congregation of the Most Holy Rosary, whose headquarters are in Adrian, Michigan. They are often referred to as Adrian Dominicans. The first president of the College was Mother Mary Gerald Barry, O.P., Prioress General of the Order. The other officers were the Vice President, Sister Benedicta Marie Ledwidge, O.P.; the Treasurers, Sister Mary Gonzaga Greene, O.P.; and the Secretary, Sister Mary deLellis Raftrey, O.P. Barry College was administered from Adrian, as were all of the other institutions owned by the Adrian Dominican Order. Daily operations were delegated to a business manager and an academic dean, who were stationed on the Miami Shores campus.[8] The corporate Secretary and Academic Dean, Sister deLellis, supervised the Division of Studies with the assistance of the Committee on Educational Policy and Curriculum. She received help with the Division of Student Life from the Committee on Student Welfare.[9]

This three-division administrative structure was adequate for many years. From 1939 until 1958, all Board of Trustees meetings were held in Adrian, Michigan, and the Board members were the officers of the Adrian Dominican Congregation. Members who lived on the Barry campus traveled to Adrian for these meetings. Beginning in 1958, about half of the Board meetings were held in Adrian, and about half on the Barry campus in Miami Shores, Florida. Members of the Board of Trustees and officers of the Barry College Corporation were appointed by the Prioress

General, Mother Gerald Barry, and affirmed or selected by the Board at these meetings.[10]

In 1958, due to the College's growth, reorganization of its administrative structure was initiated by Sisters Mary Edmund Harrison, O.P., and Mary Alice Collins, O.P., who "consulted with Mother Gerald" regarding "classifying the academic divisions."[11] The following classifications were suggested: a Division of Theology and Philosophy, a Division of Languages and Literature, a Division of Fine Arts, a Division of Natural Sciences, a Division of Social Sciences, a Division of Community Sciences, and a Graduate Council. This revision of the administrative structure was necessary because the College had grown and administration under the previous structure had become "difficult." Mother Gerald hoped that having half of the board meetings on the campus would improve communications between the central administration in Adrian and the administration and faculty on the Miami Shores campus.[12] This modification in the centralized administrative structure under which Barry College had functioned since its founding was the beginning of decentralization, but the complete process of decentralization evolved over many years.

In 1962, Mother Mary Genevieve Weber was elected Prioress General and also President of Barry College. At that time, the Superior General of the Adrian Dominican Congregation was also president of all of the corporations owned by the Congregation. Mother Genevieve realized that an absentee president contributed to administrative difficulties at this growing college. In 1963, Sister M. Dorothy Browne, O.P., became

president. She was the first president to reside on the Miami Shores campus.[13]

In 1962, the Board of Trustees first considered appointing a group of influential laymen to help the college. This group was named the Barry College Lay Advisory Board. The original purpose of the Lay Advisory Board was to advise the Board of Trustees, all of whom were Dominican sisters, regarding financial, legal, and political matters affecting the college. The Lay Advisory Board gradually became involved with fund raising and later became a training opportunity for prospective Trustees.[14]

In 1965, Sister Dorothy Browne proposed that Barry College reorganize "on university status."[15] The Board authorized Sister Dorothy to investigate this possibility, but university status was not officially adopted until 1980. However, the administrative structure was again changed in 1966 when Barry College was reincorporated. The new divisions, suggested earlier by Sister Dorothy, were the Graduate School, the School of Social Work, the School of Education, the School of Nursing, and the School of Arts and Sciences. Despite this suggestion, the School of Social Work remained the only separate school until 1974. Education and nursing remained departments within the School of Arts and Sciences until then.[16]

The 1966 reincorporation also provided for reorganization of the Board of Trustees to include two laymen. However, "to safeguard the Congregation,"[17] the majority of trustees were still to be Adrian Dominican sisters. The new Board of Trustees was comprised of "not less than five (5) nor more than fifteen (15) board members."[18] Although she

remained in Adrian as Mother General, Mother Genevieve Weber was reelected Chairman of the Board of Trustees at Barry College, and Sister M. Dorothy Browne, Barry President, was elected Vice Chairman of the Board. All Board of Trustees meetings from 1966 on were held on the Barry College campus.[19] Thus, although a degree of decentralization was created by the 1966 reincorporation, control of Barry College remained firmly in the hands of the Adrian Dominican Congregation's central administration in Adrian, Michigan.

In 1966 Michael O'Neill, President of General Tire company of Miami, and George F. Meister, the College's attorney, were unanimously approved as trustees. Both O'Neill and Meister had been members of the Lay Advisory Board prior to their election to the Barry College Board of Trustees. Their election to the Board was formally announced in May of 1967.[20]

Barry College's administration continued under this structure until 1969 when the Congregation's Mother General, Mother Rosemary Ferguson, suggested that the number of lay trustees be increased. The Board agreed that they needed more help from lay trustees and expressed serious concern regarding the Congregation's ability to continue subsidizing Barry College.[21] At this time, Archbishop Coleman F. Carroll of the Diocese of Miami requested consultation regarding the College's administrative structure and the specific functions of the Trustees. As 1969 came to a close, the Board engaged two consultants--Father James McGinley, former President of Canisius College, and the consulting firm of Cresap, McCormick, and Paget--to perform thorough studies of the College's administrative structure, academic programs and financing and

to make recommendations to the Board of Trustees concerning the future of Barry College.[22] These recommendations and subsequent changes are discussed later in this chapter.

Curriculum

The goals of Barry College were "to develop to the fullest the intellectual powers of young women, . . . to permeate their intellectual training with Catholic principles, . . . to develop the social nature of the students, . . . and to give necessary attention to the development of the physical well-being of the students."[23]

The liberal arts curriculum was comprised of lower and upper components which were two years of general education followed by "two years of concentration in a particular field."[24] Subjects offered included religion, philosophy, classical and modern languages, natural and social sciences, fine arts, education, physical education, and home and family life. Catholic students were required to enroll for eight semester credits of religion. Non-Catholic students were not required to study religion but could substitute the same number of hours of related subjects. Languages taught included Latin, Greek, German, Spanish, and English. The fine arts subjects included vocal and instrumental music and various other fine arts.[25] The teacher education program "met Florida State Certification requirements for elementary and secondary school teachers."[26] Home and family life and secretarial subjects were also offered. Thus, from its inception, the Barry College curriculum was dominated by the liberal arts but also included preparation for the occupational roles of teacher, secretary, and homemaker.

Evening classes were begun in October 1941 for the convenience of working people in the Miami area.[27] In 1941, a six-week summer session was added "to accommodate accelerated students, education students, and secondary school teachers."[28] As enrollment increased, the number and variety of courses offered also increased. The emphasis, however, remained on the liberal arts, with the occupational majors of elementary and secondary education, secretarial science, library science, and laboratory technology to meet the need of students seeking vocational preparation.[29]

During World War II, and continuing through the Korean and Vietnam wars, informative lectures and courses were offered concerning Communism.[30] The Barry College curriculum also offered other timely courses such as juvenile delinquency, consumer education, and physical fitness when there was sufficient interest and/or the College thought the course would be well attended.[31]

The nursing program opened in 1953 as a department within the Division of Studies. This department was established in response to a perceived need for a nursing major. The history of the nursing department/school is found in Chapter VI of this study.[32]

In 1954, graduate courses were offered in education and in English. This was done in response to a 1953 survey which indicated a demand for graduate study. Classes were held in the late afternoon and evening for the convenience of teachers who were employed during the day. Courses taught included curriculum design, school administration and supervision, and research methodology. Graduate degrees were offered in education and in English.[33]

When the influx of Cuban immigrants came to South Florida in 1960, Barry College offered free English courses to Cuban professionals to help them in obtaining employment in the United States. Barry College Spanish majors also taught English and religion to Cuban refugee children at a Hialeah Catholic Church's education center.[34]

In 1961, Barry College, along with two other private colleges in Florida, announced an advanced placement program which allowed "superior high school students who had done college level work"[35] to earn college credit toward a baccalaureate degree. The United States Office of Education reported that about 25 percent of U.S. colleges used the Advanced Placement program.[36]

Throughout the decade of the 1960s, the Barry College curriculum remained centered in the liberal arts. The teacher training program continued to prosper, as did the Department of Nursing. From time to time, courses pertinent to world events were introduced, for example, the "History of Southeast Asia" in 1966. A four-year business major was also introduced in 1966, and, at the same time, the twenty-five-year-old secretarial science major was discontinued.[37]

Another important development in 1966 was the inauguration of Barry's School of Social Work. It was the College's first independent school. The School of Social Work opened in September 1966 with a two-year curriculum leading to the Master of Science in Social Work degree. The Dean was Dr. Henry A. McGinnis. The curriculum included theory courses and actual fieldwork in the community.[38] In 1968, an undergraduate "Social Welfare" major as added, and work toward accreditation by the Council on Social Work Education was begun. The School was

visited by an accreditation team during the spring of 1969, and accreditation of the School of Social Work was subsequently granted. The first social work degrees were granted in 1968.[39]

In 1967, an official consortium arrangement was made with Biscayne College, a nearby Catholic college for men. Under this agreement, Barry students had the opportunity to attend classes at Biscayne College, and, likewise, Biscayne students could enroll at Barry. There were also joint faculty meetings in some departments and combined student participation in dramatic, musical, social, and recreational events. The Barry-Biscayne consortium benefitted both colleges by increasing the number of majors and courses offered and also the library and laboratory support available. Social events and extracurricular activities were also enhanced. However, there was no formal constitution for the consortium. In their extensive study of Barry College, the consulting firm of Cresap, McCormick, and Paget questioned both the lack of an administrative structure to govern the consortium and the lack of benefit to Barry College of the financial arrangements. Serious discussion of these issues was an integral part of the Board of Trustees' changes of the 1970s.[40]

In a personal description of the curriculum, two Barry graduates, Claudia M. Hauri, class of 1964, and Louise McCormick Geiss, class of 1969, described the curriculum "very traditional." Geiss stated that Barry was "very Catholic."[41] Hauri said that "the curriculum was intended to prepare the student to be a wife and mother, a mature responsible young woman."[42] Both alumnae described the undergraduate curriculum as "rigorous" but said that although students were expected

to have high academic standards, they were not encouraged to behave or think independently. However, Geiss stated that during her senior year, 1968-69, "the nuns began to open up, the classes became more humanistic, and more personal growth was encouraged."[43] This might be attributed to the changes in the Catholic Church and in the Adrian Dominican Congregation as a result of Vatican II.

The curriculum changes which occurred during the 1970s may also have begun with the Cresap, McCormick, and Paget consultation in 1970 and are discussed further later in this chapter.

Faculty

In its first year, the Barry College faculty consisted of "Adrian Dominican Sisters holding higher degrees from the best American and European universities, and of clerical and lay professors of distinction."[44] Faculty members included fourteen Adrian Dominican nuns, two of whom held doctorates, two lay professors, and one priest-professor, who also held a Ph.D. There were fifteen women and two men. Sister Mary Gonzaga Greene, B. Ed., was the Mother Superior and Business Manager.[45]

Qualified instructors supplemented the summer faculty when members of the Barry faculty left to pursue further study or to teach at other colleges.[46] The Adrian Dominican leadership encouraged members of their Congregation to continue their graduate studies. This ensured that the Congregation would have a supply of qualified faculty to teach in its colleges, while at the same time the sisters had an opportunity to advance professionally.[47]

Although teaching has always been the primary mission of Barry College and its faculty, the faculty have from the beginning been encouraged to attend professional and scientific meetings, participate in research, and publish their writings. For example, in 1941, Sister Francis Joseph Wright, O.P., attended a National Teachers Association Meeting and also had an article about Barry's founding published in the Sunday Visitor; Sister Mary Loyola Vath, O.P., worked on her book, Visualized Church History, which was later published. Sister Mary Jane Hart, O.P., did cancer research, and Sister Mary Denise Msainville, O.P., performed a series of radio broadcasts.[48] As Barry College grew and its curriculum expanded, new faculty members came to the Miami Shores campus. In September 1941, Sister Mary Dorothy Browne, Ph.D., who later became Academic Dean, and still later President of Barry College, joined the faculty as Chairman of the English Department.[49] Sister Dorothy was elected to several national offices and also received a number of honors during her tenure as faculty member and later when she was President of the College.[50] In 1947, Sister Denise was honored when her composition, "Valse Charmante," was selected by the J. P. Riddle Foundation to be performed by the Philharmonic Society of Greater Miami.[51]

Faculty members have continued to participate in and speak before professional organizations. The faculty continued to increase both in size and in the disciplines represented as increased student enrollment demanded and new courses and programs were added.[52] One gradual but significant change in the Barry College faculty was the declining ratio of religious to lay faculty. When the College opened in 1940, the

faculty was comprised of fourteen nuns, one priest, and two laywomen.[53]
By 1968, about one-half of the faculty were laypersons. This decline in
the number of nuns on the Barry faculty could be attributed to the
smaller number of young women entering the Adrian Dominican congregation
during the 1960s and to an increasing number of nuns leaving he
convent.[54] As enrollment grew, qualified laypersons were added to the
faculty.

The late 1960s was a time of transition in the American Catholic
Church and at Barry College. This transition was described as difficult
by two Barry graduates, Sister Linda Bevilacqua, O.P., and Louise M.
Geiss.[55] One effect of the declining proportion of religious faculty
may have been the perceived confusion about Barry College's mission.
This confusion was identified by Cresap, Paget, and McCormick in its
survey: "Barry College no longer presents a clear image of its role in
today's world. . . . There was no consensus regarding what kind of
school Barry needs to be."[56] This perception, other regarding the
faculty, and the changes needed at Barry College are discussed in detail
later in this chapter.

Students

When Barry College opened in September 1940, forty-five students
were enrolled. This number included thirty-nine full-time and six part-
time students. The six part-timers were Franciscan nuns. Four of the
full-time students were Adrian Dominican postulants. There were
nineteen resident lay students and sixteen nonresidents. Of these,
twenty-one were freshmen, sixteen were sophomores, six were juniors, and

two were seniors. Most of the upper biennium students were transfer students from Siena Heights College in Adrian, Michigan. This college was also operated by the Adrian Dominican sisters. Among the first group of students were twelve non-Catholic girls.[57]

The first summer session, held in 1941, enrolled forty-two religious and six lay students. The first summer sessions offered "the regular curriculum including math, science, history, languages, commercial education, and the fine arts."[58] Students who wished to do so could complete their baccalaureate degrees in three years, plus, three summer sessions.

The college's first graduation was held in June 1942, when graduates received degrees in the following majors: philosophy (3), commercial education (2), chemistry (1), English literature (1), nursing education (1), hospital administration (1), and home economics (1). Three members of the first class planned to continue their studies toward master's degrees. Five intended to begin careers in elementary, secondary, or nursing education and two planned hospital-related careers, one as an administrator and the other as a hospital dietitian. Many of the graduates said that they expected their work to contribute to the country's defense effort.[59]

Enrollment increased by one-third in 1941 and continued to grow. Table 5-1 shows the enrollments for the years for which these data were available. Table 5-1 emphasizes that enrollment nearly doubled every two years until 1945, then continued its steady increase from 1945 until 1957. During the eleven years between 1957 and 1968, enrollment again almost doubled.[60]

TABLE 5-1

BARRY COLLEGE ENROLLMENT:
1940-1968

Years	1940	1943	1945	1948	1957	1965	1968
Fall & Spring Enrollment	45	100	230	260	776	1072	1200

SOURCES: "Number of Students Increases Yearly at Barry College," St. Augustine Catholic (Florida), 20 January 1942; "Barry Roll to Include 100 Students," Miami Daily News, 5 September 1943; "Barry to Open September 24 With Some 230 Enrolled," Miami Herald, 16 September 1945; "Barry to Enroll with 142 Freshmen, Sculpturing Among New Courses," Miami Daily News, 12 September 1948; "776 to Sign For Fall Classes: 190 Are Freshmen," The Barry Bulletin, #2 (Fall, 1957), p. 1. "Barry Reveals $10 Mil Future at Founder's Day," North Dade Journal (Florida), 18 November 1965; "Barry College Is Prospering in Students and New Facilities," Miami Herald, 25 August 1968.

Barry remained a women's college until 1952, when two teachers became the first men to enroll at Barry College. In 1954, two Marine officers from nearby Opalocka Field enrolled for an undergraduate "History of Philosophy" course.[61]

Summer session enrollment also continued to grow, from forty-eight in 1941 to seven hundred in 1957. The fall and spring enrollment included undergraduate students studying various subjects. A majority of the summer students were teachers.[62]

Barry graduates continued to enter a variety of occupational fields, including homemaking and secretarial work. Both the home economics and secretarial science programs were popular throughout the 1940s and 1950s. During the 1960s, a time of increasing humanitarianism, more graduates entered service fields such as teaching, the

missions, and nursing. Nuns continued to enroll and to graduate in large numbers. Religious studies and the liberal arts and sciences also remained popular.[63]

Another change which began during the 1960s was the enrollment of large numbers of older students. Many former housewives returned to the campus to complete educations interrupted by marriage and child-bearing. This trend accelerated on the Barry campus with the inauguration of the Schools of Social Work and Business and expanded offerings in education. Many of these courses were offered during the later afternoon or evenings or on Saturdays for the convenience of adult students.[64]

An interesting nonevent at Barry during the late 1960s and early 1970s was a lack of student unrest. The only "demonstration" ocurred when, to protest campus curfews, a group of students slept in their sleeping bags on the porches of one of the dormitories. This occurred at about the same time as the Kent State University shootings.[65] The contrast between the violence at Kent State and the sleeping bag demonstration at Barry College illustrates the low level of overt dissatisfaction expressed at Barry. The possibility of student dissatisfaction was confronted at Barry through a series of meetings in which the President, Sister M. Dorothy Browne, or the Academic Vice President, Sister M. Trinita Flood, had group discussions with students regarding their concerns. Discussion topics included male visitation in the dormitories, curfews, smoking in the dorms, and, of course, the war in Southeast Asia. Rather than resort to violence, most students sought change through existing channels such as petitions, peaceful demonstrations, and prayers for an early end to the war.[66] Sister Trinita

remembered that "some discussions were pretty hot. We had 100 to 150 students at each meeting."[67] Sister Linda Bevilacqua, who was Assistant Dean of Students at that time, said

> It bothered me that our students were so apathetic. I wondered what we were doing wrong that they seemed so unaware . . . very conservative. Were we exposing them enough? . . . it might have been that . . . we dealt with problems before things reached the boiling point.[68]

In summary, the students of Barry were, from the College's founding, rather conservative young women. As the 1960s unfolded, older students began to enroll. At the same time, the graduate and professional student enrollment increased. Students were provided a mechanism for discussing their concerns about the College and the outside world. This, along with the inherent conservatism of the College and its students, probably prevented serious unrest on the Barry campus.

Financial Affairs

The Adrian Dominican Congregation and the Barry family, Bishop Patrick Barry, Mother Mary Gerald Barry, and Monsignor William Barry, were the major early benefactors of Barry College. In addition to contributing substantial amounts of their family assets, they were able to persuade other benefactors such as Mrs. Margaret Brady Farrell to contribute. The Barry's were also able to secure low-interest commercial loans and an interest-free loan from the Adrian Dominican Congregation. These financial benefits continued until William Barry's death in 1967.[69] Some of the funds were used to establish endowments, from which the interest was used for operating expenses and scholarships.[70] In 1946, the General Council of the Sisters of the Third Order

of St. Dominic approved an "annual annuity of $15,000 to Barry College. This is the Southern Association of Colleges requirement--$15,000 represents the annual interest in the endowment ordinarily required for member colleges."[71] This action was taken in order to assist the College in its efforts to attain Southern Association accreditation.

From the beginning, the corporate secretaries and treasurers were empowered to conduct the daily financial transactions of the College. Extraordinary events such as the approval of funding for new buildings or the approval of building contracts were subject to action by the Board of Trustees which usually met in Adrian, Michigan.[72] This centralized administrative control and delegation of authority and responsibility continued from 1939 until 1966, when a major reorganization of the College was undertaken.[73]

There was no record found of faculty and staff salaries until 1954, when the Administrative Council approved a "salary scale of computing the value of contributed salaries" of the sisters.[74] The scale was constructed from the average salaries published by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. The salaries quoted for Barry ranged from $8,000 for the College's president to $2,800 for instructors. In 1960, the salary scale was increased so that the range was from $10,000 for the president to $3,800 for instructors.[75]

In 1960, student financial aid was begun at Barry College. All student aides at the College were paid seventy-five dollars each semester for working ten hours each week. In 1961, the fringe benefit of free tuition was approved for full-time lay faculty.[76]

Previously, in 1956, the Board of Trustees instituted two other financial management strategies: sale of college property and application to charitable foundations for funds. Specifically, the board approved sale of property donated by Edwin L. Wiegand and an application to the Ford Foundation for grants. Sale of the Wiegand property yielded $20,000 profit for the college. Grants of $65,000 and $64,000 were received from the Ford Foundation. Only the interest from the above revenues was to be used "to improve faculty salaries."[77] The low faculty salaries continued to deter recruitment of qualified lay faculty. In 1960, the _Miami News_ stated, "Colleges Must Seek Hand-out to Pay Teachers."[78] The article referred to Ford Foundation grant applications by Barry and other Florida colleges. These grants were intended to increase faculty salaries.

Barry College's rapid growth coupled with decreased financial support from the Adrian Dominican congregation began to cause serious financial difficulty during the 1960s. The College attempted to solve these financial problems by increasing tuition and by seeking additional federal government loans and grants.[79] Tuition and fees were increased approximately one hundred dollars each year from 1961 until 1972. For example, in 1961, tuition for Florida resident students was $350 and for non-Florida resident, $450. By the 1964-65 academic year, tuition had risen to $700 and to $900 1967-68 session. From 1969 until 1972, tuition increased exactly one hundred dollars each year, so that by 1972, tuition at Barry College was fifteen hundred dollars per academic year.[80]

The rapid growth in student enrollment stimulated a building expansion program on the Barry campus. Beginning in 1956, Federal Housing Authority (FHA) loans were obtained to build new dormitories. The College also received a loan from the Adrian Dominican congregation to supplement the federal loans. These funds were used to purchase the Town and Country Motel, which was renamed Barry Villa, and used to house sisters and a few students. Prior to this loan, all buildings had been financed by the congregation using no- or very low-interest loans. Prior to its approval by the Barry Trustees, the federal loan application was considered for five years by the Trustees, all of whom were Adrian Dominican nuns. They were reluctant to change from the previous self-financing of their building programs, despite the fact that the interest rate on FHA loans was only 2-1/2 percent at that time.

Continued growth in student enrollment at Barry stimulated construction of several much-needed buildings. They were dormitories, a student union building (1962), and a new library (1966). In 1971, the Wiegand Science and Language Center was completed. All of these buildings were financed by a combination of federal loans, federal and private foundation matching grants, bond sales, and bequests from various benefactors.[82]

In 1964, John C. Kent was named Assistant to the President. His duties were "in the general area of development."[83] Kent's efforts greatly facilitated Barry College's search for a more sophisticated funding base. Various federal government loans and grants were supplemented by gifts from corporations and foundations such as the Ford Motor Company, Gulf Life Insurance Company, the Sears and U.S. Steel

Foundations, and the Barry College Alumni Association. In 1968, Kent's position was elevated to Vice President for Building Development and Expansion.[84]

Another interesting financial fact of the 1960s was the explosion of federally funded student loans and scholarships. These began with loans for Cuban refugee students in 1961. In 1963, the National Defense Act provided student loans for many Barry students. In 1964, the Florida State Scholarship and Loan Program was approved, and in 1967, the School of Social Work received a National Child Welfare Training Grant. These loans and grants enabled many low-income students to attend Barry and other colleges.[85]

Despite the increased level of private, state, and federal support, many colleges, including Barry, were unable to balance their budgets. Barry's 1967-68 operating budget showed a $74,000 deficit. This deficit increased each year until 1974. The 1969-70 projected deficit was $264,774.[86] The administration and the Board of Trustees thought this trend toward deficit financing "most distressing."[87] Efforts to eliminate the accrued debt dominated the Board's concern during the early 1970s.[88]

Extracurricular Activities

From its inception, Barry College's administration and faculty strove to create a tradition, not only in academics, but also in everyday campus life. The academic year was marked by ceremonies such as Investiture, when freshmen were formally inducted into academic life; Founder's Day, celebrating Barry College's beginning; and graduation

week festivities honoring the graduates and their parents. Graduation week included a baccalaureate mass followed immediately by a formal breakfast. The Rose and Candle ceremony was an evening event in which the junior and senior classes exchanged roses, symbolizing love, and lighted candles, symbolizing knowledge. Formal graduation ceremonies were comprised of processions, inspirational congratulatory speeches, conferring of degrees by the Archbishop and the College President, and a reception for the graduates, their parents, and friends.[89]

The College also instituted "lectures and concerts by talented outsiders";[90] informal and formal teas, dinners, and dances; the French Club; the Tara Singers; and organ and piano recitals to enhance the College's cultural activities. For example, in 1940, the Barry College student newspaper, called _Barry Digest_ and renamed _Angelicus_ in 1941, was founded. The newspaper began in 1940 as an English class project, then in 1941, all students were invited to work on its monthly publication.[91]

Religious activities were always an important part of Barry life. Our Lady's Sodality, a student religious organization, was begun in 1940. The Sodality adopted the slogan "A Rosary A Day Is The Barry Way"[92] to encourage student prayer and attendance at all campus religious services. Students were also expected to participate in forty hours of devotions and religious retreats each year. The Living Rosary ceremony was held each October to emphasize the Sodality's role in religious life on campus. Early in World War II, prayer vigils were organized to pray for peace and for the servicemen's safety.[93]

Students were also invited to participate in various performing groups such as Christmas carol choruses, Christmas plays, and other musical and dramatic performances throughout the academic year. Lectures, open to both the students and general public, were held on the Barry campus to present such topics as Americanism, civil defense, and hemispheric solidarity. In 1943, a group of students completed a survey of community leaders to determine the community's future educational needs and interests.[94]

In October 1955, the Barry Culture Series was inaugurated to bring nationally known lecturers, plays, and musical events to the newly constructed one-thousand-seat College auditorium. The series was Barry's effort to bring cultural events to Miami. All performances were open to students and to the public. During the first year, and for many years thereafter, Frank J. Sheed opened the series with a thoughtful lecture on theology, psychiatry, Communism, or other interesting topics. Plays were often presented as benefits, as were a variety of musical events including piano and voice recitals.[95]

In 1961, Sister Nadine Foley and senior student Linda Bevilacqua organized a "Presidential Prayer Corps" in response to President John F. Kennedy's appeal for prayers. The only membership requirement was a promise to pray daily for "our President, our country, and our world."[96] The Prayer Corps had membership cards, lapel pins, and printed prayer cards. From Barry, the idea spread to other Catholic colleges and, in the next year, to non-Catholic colleges as well.[97] After President Kennedy's death in November 1963, the Prayer Corps faded out for a time. In 1968, the idea was revived as "Prayer Battalions" to pray for Marines

in combat in Vietnam, for their safety, for the success of the war effort, and for eventual peace.[98]

The Barry College community participated in other community religious activities throughout the year. For example, when Bishop Coleman F. Carroll as installed as the first bishop of the new Miami Diocese on October 8, 1958, Barry College students, faculty, and staff attended his installation at St Mary's Cathedral in Miami. Later that day, he was honored at a reception on the Barry College campus in Miami Shores.[99] Barry College again honored the Bishop by conferring an honorary Doctor of Laws degree on him at the eighteenth annual Founders' Day celebration on November 20, 1958.[100]

Other student activities of the 1950s and 1960s included a number of regional clubs such as the Florida Club, the New York Club, and the Deep South Club. Although these clubs were originally formed by students, they later became the nucleus for regional alumni chapters. Many students participated in community activities such as Head Start programs, tutoring inner city public school students, teaching English and social studies to migrant and Cuban refugee children, and giving religious instruction at Youth Hall.[101] When she was president, Sister Dorothy Browne summarized the purpose of these activities when she wrote

> Colleges and universities must promote changes that will relate both broad and specific curriculum to current social, economic, political and religious problems. When students become involved with community problems while in college they are more likely to continue positive action.[102]

Leadership

The leadership influence of the three Barry's was incalculable. Bishop Patrick Barry's influence in founding and financing Barry College for Women was considerable. Unfortunately, he did not live to witness the opening of the College. Mother Mary Gerald Barry supervised the College in her role as chief executive of the Adrian Dominican Congregation. In this role, Mother Gerald directed more than two thousand sisters who taught and nursed in Dominican institutions throughout the United States. Despite her many responsibilities, Mother Gerald traveled to Barry College "as often as she could, usually at least once each year."[103] Mother Gerald's interest in and influence on Barry College continued until her death in 1961.[104] Monsignor William Barry, Pastor of St. Patrick's Church in Miami Beach, was very active in providing leadership to Barry College. He advised the sisters on many matters regarding the College. He also contributed funds, solicited financial support from wealthy benefactors, and sought help and influence from other leaders in South Florida. Each year, Monsignor Barry attended the annual Founders' Day celebration. For twenty-six years he refused any public recognition of his contributions to Barry College, but in 1966, the College surprised him by conferring upon him an honorary Doctor of Letters degree. At that time, Sister M. Dorothy Browne, Barry President, called him "Barry's greatest benefactor."[105] On that occasion, William Barry showed that despite age and infirmity he had "retained his snappy Irish wit." He said, "This is an extraordinary thing, to be at your own funeral."[106] Monsignor Barry died in 1967 from complications he had suffered in an auto accident in 1966.[107]

The fourth founder of Barry College, Mayor John G. Thompson of Miami Shores, was an influential behind-the-scenes leader from the earliest planning for Barry College until his death in 1962. Thompson was reported to have wanted a college in North Dade County "where his daughters could get a good education and a strong knowledge of spiritual and moral values."[108] He assisted Monsignor William Barry in selecting the land in Miami Shores upon which Barry College was built, "a site in a wilderness of scrub palmetto dotted with straggling southern pines on the outskirts of Miami.[109] Thompson continued to serve the college as its legal advisor while he was mayor of Miami Shores, and, later, when he was a private citizen. He also continued to be influential in Barry College's growth and improvement. Thompson assisted with development of the first library on campus and also taught Business Law at the College for many years. Thompson, along with the other founders, was honored each year at the College's annual Founders' Day celebration. In 1956, John G. Thompson was honored as the first recipient of Barry College's Laudare Medal, which was established to honor a prominent person who had been influential in the College's growth and development. In 1962, the College honored him by naming its student union building Thompson Hall.[110]

Other members of the Barry family were also involved in the College's early development and continued their interest after the founders' deaths. Founders' Day, celebrated each year in November, was attended by many Barry family members. In 1956 and 1959, Founders' Day was described as a reunion for the Barry family.[111] Mother Gerald Barry visited with her nephew, Gerald Barry of Chicago, architect for all of

the College's buildings at that time.   Two nieces, Sister Kathleen
Marie, O.P., then Principal of St. Rose of Lima School, and Sister Marie
Joseph Barry, O.P., then a teacher at Little Flower School, were regular
attendees.   In 1959, the Barry family was described as "pioneers in the
work of the (Catholic) Church in Florida."[112]   Architect Gerald Barry
continued to design all of the College buildings until his death in
1966.[113]

In 1962, Mother Mary Genevieve Weber was elected Prioress General
of the Adrian Dominican Order and, therefore, President of Barry
College. She had previously been a member of the Barry College faculty.
As a faculty member, Mother Genevieve taught botany and biology and was
elected Prioress (mother superior) of the sisters at Barry. While still
on the Miami Shores campus, Mother Genevieve became aware of the diffi-
culties in communication and administration caused by having an absentee
president.   Later, when she was elected Mother General of the Adrian
Dominicans and became President of Barry College, Mother Genevieve began
working to convince the Board of Trustees and Council General of the
Order to appoint a president who would reside on the Miami Shores
campus.   Mother Genevieve's recommendation was accepted and, subse-
quently, Sister Mary Dorothy Brown, O.P., was selected President of
Barry College in 1963.[114]

Mother Genevieve continued as Mother General of the Dominican
Congregation, supervising more than two thousand sisters engaged in
teaching, nursing, social work, and catechetical work until 1968, when
she returned to Barry as Vice President for Building and Expansions. In
this capacity, she supervised the construction of the Wiegand Science

and Language Center. Her duties included reviewing contracts and bids and writing government specifications for the building and its furnishings. She also continued her botanical work when she planted many trees and shrubs on the campus, developed the Botany Garden adjacent to the Wiegand Center, and supervised cataloging and labeling of all the plants and trees on the Barry campus. Mother Genevieve remained active as a botanist and teacher until her retirement in 1981.[115]

Sister M. Dorothy Browne was elected President of Barry College in 1963, after having served as Chairman of the College Division of the Dominican Education Association since 1961. She had first come to Barry as Chairman of the Education Department in 1942. In 1945, she became Associate Dean, and,in 1947, Academic Dean. She served as Dean until 1957, when she left Barry to become Dean of Siena Heights College. Sister's vision for Barry was that the College should give students a broad liberal education without neglecting preparation for a profession.[116] She said, "We hope their schooling will give them proper training to become inspired homemakers and mothers, and that their education will be useful to them after they rear their children, when they will seek outlets for their energies and talents outside the home."[117] Sister Dorothy enjoyed a solid reputation as a college administrator. She also encouraged Barry students to learn to be leaders. On several occasions, she said that women would have more opportunities for leadership in the future and that women's colleges such as Barry offered young women many opportunities to grow into leadership roles.[118] Sister Dorothy did, however, reflect a more traditional viewpoint when she stated that she lets the men talk first,

that she "holds her tongue until she can supply something important to the conversation."[119]

In 1965, Sister Dorothy and the trustees announced an ambitious ten-year, ten-million dollar expansion plan for Barry College. She stated that the College would be seeking federal grant funds and matching contributions from benefactors to finance the building program. In her announcement, Sister said, "It's no longer good enough to be small and private, Barry must compete successfully with tax-supported institutions to survive."[120]

Sister Dorothy actively participated as a leader in local, state, and national educational matters. In 1953, she was the first woman elected to the Commission on Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. As a member of this group, she reviewed colleges and universities applying for accreditation by the Association.

Throughout her tenure as Barry President, Sister Dorothy actively represented the College at the Florida Association of Colleges and Universities, an organization of all the colleges and universities in Florida, and at the Independent Colleges and Universities of Florida (ICUF), comprised only of private institutions. Both of these organizations worked to improve communication among their member schools and to inform the public of the value and benefits of higher education. The Independent Colleges Foundation also tried to consolidate the fund-raising efforts of member schools.[121]

Sister Dorothy spoke to many community groups and received many awards and honors while she was President of Barry College. In 1967, she was honored by the National Council of Christians and Jews (NCCJ)

for promoting brotherhood throughout her career, and, in 1969, she received a Community Headliners award from Theta Sigma Phi, a women's journalism fraternity, for leadership while a member of the Commission of Colleges and Universities of the Southern Association and the Commission on Religion in Higher Education of the Association of American Colleges.[122] Sister Dorothy remained President of Barry College during the early 1970s, a period of rapid growth and change at Barry as well as at many other higher education institutions. Her leadership and influence were important to Barry College from the beginning of her presidency in 1963, and they were even more important from 1965 on when Barry began its transition from small Catholic women's college to independent university.[123]

Growth and Development: Small Women's College to University, 1970-1980

Introduction

The early 1970s were an exciting time on many college campuses, including the Barry campus. The addition of laymen to the Board of Trustees was an indication that the administration recognized a need for change and growth and for the more sophisticated input of persons who were comfortable in the secular world. In 1970, the President and the Board sought assistance in planning for change from management consultants Cresap, McCormick, and Paget of Chicago and from such educational organizations as the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the Council on Social Work Education, and the National League for Nursing.[124]

Cresap, McCormick, and Paget performed an intensive study of the College and of its relationship to the surrounding community and to the state. Their objective was to identify "the course of action the college should plan and follow as it enters a new decade."[125] The consultants gathered data from various college administrators of public and private area colleges and selected faculty, alumni, students, administrators, members of the Board of Trustees, and the Lay Advisory Board. The consultants reported that the population of South Florida could be expected to increase during the 1970s and that the college-age population would also increase. They expected that high school enrollment would "increase by one-fourth in the next five years"[126] and that family income would increase sufficiently so that these students would be able to afford college expenses. Cresap, McCormick, and Paget also reported that although there were five colleges and universities within the South Florida area, Barry College could expect to grow because it offered a unique religious atmosphere and liberal arts curriculum not duplicated by other area colleges.[127]

Administration

The Cresap report stated that the Board of Trustees had not "exercised strong leadership."[128] The consultants also concluded that the college's administrative structure, which prior to 1969 had seven administrative officers reporting to the president, was too centralized. When the consultants interviewed selected administrators, faculty, and staff, they reported that this "overcentralization was strongly criticized by many at Barry College; nothing could be done without the

President's approval."[129] Interviewees also stated that despite the inclusion of laymen on the Board of Trustees, Adrian Dominican sisters still dominated the administration. In the instance of college committees and councils, "70 percent of the sisters served on one or more committees, compared with only 45 percent of full-time lay faculty and administrators."[130]

Cresap, McCormick, and Paget recommended a thorough and detailed evaluation by faculty, students, and administrators of Barry's academic program related to the College's mission statement, that is, the College's liberal arts emphasis. The consultants' report suggested that this evaluation include the cost effectiveness of such courses and majors as classical Greek and Latin.[131] The consultants further recommended that Barry continue the previously established consortium with Biscayne College. The third recommendation was to improve the financial base for the School of Social Work by obtaining research and training grants to supplement tuition receipts and subsidies from the College. Once Florida International University opened in 1972, "if it plans a program in social work, Barry should cooperate with them to avoid duplication. . . . Barry may not be able to compete with the state system in this area."[132] The consultants also recommended strengthening the role of the Board of Trustees by including a more diverse lay membership. They noted that the Board should assume greater responsibility for developing and controlling policy. They further recommended that members be selected who had a strong commitment to higher education in general and to Barry College in particular. The consultants cautioned that "members should not be chosen merely because their names

lend prestige to the institution."[133] The consultants recommended that the majority of the membership be laymen, with ex-officio membership limited to one representative from the Adrian Dominican congregation and the President of Barry College. The consultants further recommended the following Board of Trustees committee structure: four standing committees--executive, academic programs, development, and finance, with additional ad hoc committees appointed as needed.[134] In the area of administration, Cresap, McCormick, and Paget recommended that the President delegate more responsibility and authority to other administrators so that while she requires responsibility of her subordinates, she does not "permit unnecessary consultation with her."[135]

The consultants cautioned Barry to overcome an anticipated drop in enrollment in 1972, when Florida International University was expected to open, by capitalizing on the growth of the Latin population in the Miami area and by continuing intensive local recruiting.[136]

Cresap, McCormick, and Paget further recommended strengthening Barry's financial management with tighter budgetary accountability and with long-range forecasting of income and expenditures.[137] The consultants particularly stressed recognition of the declining contribution of Adrian Dominican faculty members' "contributed services"[138] and the necessity of raising salaries for lay faculty in order to be competitive with other area colleges. A gradual increase in tuition of 5 percent per year was recommended, along with increased income from nontuition revenues. To counteract the loss of Monsignor William Barry's influence and support, the College was also advised to "consult a professional development advisor concerning the true potential of gifts and grants

from the Miami area."[139] The College was also advised to strengthen its public relations by "projecting a clear, strong and accurate image of Barry."[140] The consultants' report emphasized this by noting that many of the opinions they elicited in their survey about Barry were not based on accurate information, that many of those surveyed could not state Barry's mission or purpose.[141]

The Board of Trustees discussed the Cresap, McCormick, and Paget report at the October 13, 1970, and December 9, 1970 meetings and considered these recommendations. The Board immediately appointed a subcommittee for development, which was charged with improving the College's public relations and fund-raising activities.[142] In addition to the Development Subcommittee, Executive, Finance, and Educational Subcommittees were appointed. The Board of Trustees was further enlarged to include four more laymen. The Lay Advisory Board was also enlarged to include twenty-four lay persons, nineteen men and five women.[143]

The College's organizational structure was also changed in response to the Cresap report. The Director of Financial Affairs was given the title Vice President for Financial Affairs, and the Chairman of the Graduate Division became the Dean of the Graduate Division. These changes were intended to strengthen the financial and academic activities of these divisions of the College.[144] Although their minutes state only that "the Cresap Report was discussed," these changes were made by the Board of Trustees during, and shortly after, the consultants' study.[145] The detailed curriculum study recommended by the consultants was undertaken and is discussed later in this chapter.

In 1971, the Board of Trustees began another bylaws revision. It was necessary to change the bylaws to allow for the increased number of laymen on the Board, to consider other administrative changes recommended by the consultants, and to comply with Southern Association accreditation requirements. The legal implications of these structural changes were researched by lawyers for the Board and the Adrian Dominican Congregation. Since the majority of the Board was to be laymen, the legal question of ownership surfaced. Who owned Barry College, the Board of Trustees or the Adrian Dominican Congregation? Concerns were expressed that the College not jeopardize access to public and foundation aid. Sister Rosemary Ferguson, O.P., Mother General of the Adrian Dominicans, wanted "the relationship between the Congregation and Barry College spelled out."[146] Therefore, a subcommittee was appointed to study the proposed bylaws revisions.

In January 1972, the Adrian Dominican Congregation released a detailed study of its relationship to its fourteen corporations. These corporations included two hospitals, three colleges, seven high schools, one residence, and one camp. Barry College was one of the three colleges owned by the Congregation. This report stated that the history of these institutions was divided into three phases. Phase one lasted from the founding of the institutions until 1966. During this period, all Adrian Dominican institutions were centrally controlled from Adrian, and all trustees were members of the Congregation. Phase two began in 1966, when all Boards of Trustees were altered to include lay members and "leadership was transferred to the local level."[147] Phase three was to be legal independence of all institutions from the Congregation and

"ownership passes from the Congregation to local institutions."[148] One

conclusion of the study was that Barry College became independent of the

Adrian Dominican Congregation when control of the Board of Trustees

passed from the sisters to the lay Board members.[149] The next step

needed was legal transfer of ownership and financial responsibility.

The Board continued to consider the Congregation's study and ultimately

agreed that Barry College really was legally independent of the Adrian

Dominicans. "The Board of Trustees feels responsibility but not

ownership."[150]

The Board of Trustees, which was elected in May 1972 was comprised

of eleven lay persons, five Adrian Dominican sisters, and Archbishop

Coleman F. Carroll. Shepard Broad was the first layman elected Board

Chairman.[151] The bylaws subcommittee was dissolved and a new subcom-

mittee appointed to study the legal and financial ramifications of Barry

College's independence. The legal and financial subcommittee included

representatives of the Adrian Dominican Congregation, Barry College, and

the lawyers for both corporations.[152]

The sorting out of all of the legal and financial questions

involved in Barry College becoming an independent college was a long and

arduous process. This process involved not only the laws of the state

of Florida but also Roman Catholic Church canon law. Under canon law,

if Barry were to become an independent college, it was thought that

"alienation of property" had to be "approved by Rome."[153] "Alienation"

involved both the legal and financial relationships between the College

and the Congregation. The legal aspects included transfer of ownership

of Barry properties from the Adrian Dominican Congregation to the Barry

College Corporation and legal restructuring of the Board of Trustees to assure lay control. Financial considerations included payments to the Congregation for Barry's estimated ten to fifteen millions dollars in assets, Barry's indebtedness to the Congregation, the fact that the Congregation would cease to guarantee any loans Barry might make, the question of the sisters "contributed salaries," and the fact that Barry would be more likely to receive aid from the State of Florida if it were legally independent of religious control.[154] The financial details are described later in this chapter.

The Barry College Corporation had been a legally separate entity since its founding. The Congregation controlled Barry initially by an appointed, all-Adrian Dominican Board of Trustees. Later, when laymen became Board members, the Congregation retained control by having Adrian Dominican nuns remain a majority of the Board members.

The process of legally separating the two institutions unfolded over a two-year period. The Board of Trustees, which included Sister Rosemary Ferguson, O.P., Prioress General of the Adrian Dominican Congregation, conducted lengthy meetings with detailed discussions. They consulted a canon lawyer and sent a request to Rome for "alienation of property."[155] Twice, the representative of the Adrian Dominicans, Sister Rosemary or her designate, consulted with the Congregational Council. At two meetings there was "lengthy discussion," but "no action was taken."[156] There never was a threat by the Order to discontinue the sisters' teaching responsibility. Sister Rosemary stated that "the Congregation could continue to have Barry College as an apostolate, the

sisters are free to choose their own ministry, . . . each institution has to attract faculty and administration."[157]

The legal and financial subcommittee presented its reports, and the Board spent the entire December 8, 1972, meeting discussing the history of the relationship between Barry College, the Adrian Dominican Congregation, and the current requirements of civil and canon law for dissolution of the relationship. A "Resolution Regarding the Relationship of Barry College and the Adrian Dominican Congregation"[158] was approved on February 16, 1973, after it had been discussed at two Board meetings. Then the lawyers and the Trustees began preparing Articles of Reincorporation which included all of the previously described structural changes. Another year passed before all of the financial details were negotiated.[159]

The revised bylaws of Barry College were finally adopted on May 17, 1974. The new bylaws specified that the Board of Trustees owned the College and changed the composition of the Board to "not less than nine (9), nor more than twenty-five (25) members, of whom not less than one-fourth (1/4) nor more than one-third (1/3) are members of the (Adrian Dominican) Congregation."[160] The bylaws were again revised in 1975 to increase the number of laymen to a maximum of thirty-six. The revised administrative structure was to include the following standing committees of the Board of Trustees: Executive, Financial Affairs, Development, and Educational Affairs.[161]

In 1970, preparation for the periodic visitation for evaluation of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools to Barry College was begun. The self-study was an in-depth evaluation of all aspects of

Barry College, including its administrative structure. In the first phase, each academic unit completed its own self-study by March 1971. Then, the college-wide committees used these data to begin their work.[162] These self-study committees were the Steering, Editing, Purpose, Organization and Administration, Educational Program, Financial Resources, Faculty, Library, Student Personnel, Physical Plant, Special Activities, Graduate Program, and the Consortium Committee.[163]

The Purpose Committee surveyed "the college community and found that while most persons affirmed Barry's mission as a Catholic college, . . . thee was both a ground swell for co-education, . . . and concern that the college might change too much in response to rapid change."[164] The committee summarized by stating that

> any attempt to change programs, degrees or control
> will be futile until a consensus is reached about
> the purpose of the institution and the best course
> to achieve it.[165]

The Organization and Administration Committee noted the 1971 change in the Board of Trustees subcommittees. The committee recommended increasing the number of laypersons on the Board of Trustees and that administrators, faculty, and students be informed of their "right of direct contact with the Board when the need arises."[166] The committee noted the 1972 administrative structure, which had the Vice Presidents for Business and Academic Affairs, the Dean of Students , and the Assistant to the President for Development reporting directly to the President.[167] The Southern Association visitors' report recommended that the Board of Trustees "obtain a legal opinion regarding the excess number of Trustees and that appropriate action be taken."[168] This recommendation reinforced the previously described efforts to reorganize

the Board of Trustees. Subsequently, the Board was reorganized and revised bylaws were adopted in 1974.[169] Other aspects of the 1972 Southern Association self-study and visit are discussed later in this chapter.

Subsequent to completion of the previously discussed consultations, self-study, and legal separation of Barry College and the Adrian Dominicans, a new structure for the Board of Trustees was proposed and adopted in 1974. Figure 5-1 depicts the 1973 and revised 1974 organizational charts.[170] The 1974 chart shows that the academic disciplines were placed in four schools: Social Work, Education, Nursing, and Arts and Sciences. The School of Arts and Sciences had thirteen academic departments. Each school was administered by a dean who reported directly to the Vice President for Academic Affairs. One intent of the reorganization was to strengthen Education and Nursing, the two largest academic units in the College. Another purpose was to decrease the number of department chairpersons reporting to the Vice President for Academic Affairs. The President and the Board of Trustees hoped that this internal reorganization would clarify lines of authority and responsibility, improve communication among the schools, and create a more realistic administrative responsibility for the new dean of Arts and Sciences.[171] This change followed the previously described pattern of presentation and discussion over the course of several months and at least two meetings. Finally, the reorganization was approved at the October 24, 1974, Board of Trustees meeting.[172]

Another 1972 Southern Association suggestion concerned planning for the future of Barry College. The committee suggested that the
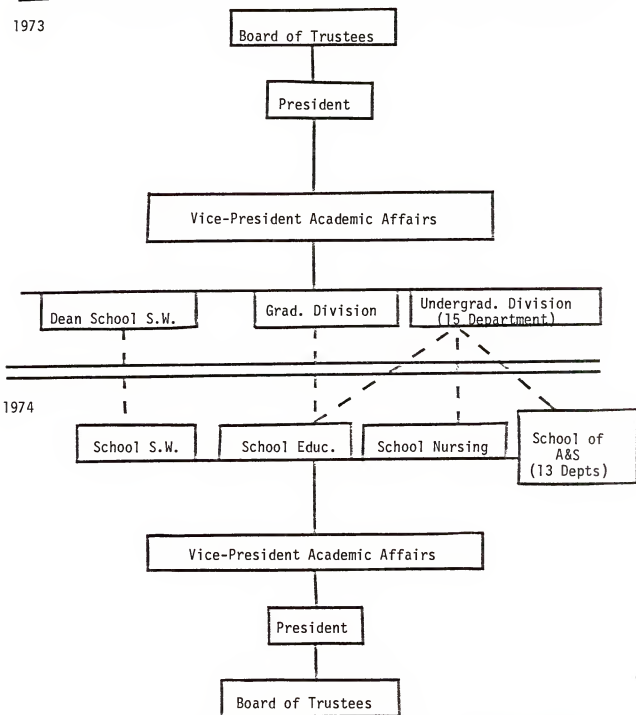
Figure 5-1. Barry College Table of Organization, 1973 and 1974

College make projections and establish long-term and short-term goals. The need for such a plan was accepted in 1973, and long-range planning actually began in August 1974. The process was initiated with a review of Barry College's proposed goals for the years 1975-78. Each academic unit then discussed its goals in light of the Barry College goals and from these discussions derived departmental planning guides. After a review, these twenty-one individual departmental planning guides were synthesized into six "Area Planning Books," then into one "Proposed Plan for 1975-78".[173] The Board approved the three-year plan in February 1975 except that the financial plans were approved for the 1974-75 academic year only. The Board would reexamine the budget each year: "We cannot commit to any stated increments for 1976-1977 or 1977-78 as we are not sure what the financial condition of the College will be at that time."[174] This long-range planning process was repeated annually. It has helped the individual academic units and the College to set and to review their long-term goals more realistically.[175]

Financial Affairs

As the early 1970s unfolded, it became apparent to the Barry College Board of Trustees and administration that the deficits of the late 1960s would continue to grow unless actions were taken to reverse this trend. The projected 1969-70 deficit of $264,774 had grown to $600,000 by 1974-75. Table 5-2 depicts the growth of Barry College's debt. Each year from 1967 until 1976, an increasing deficit was carried over into the subsequent year. For example, in 1971-72 $74,439 was carried over; in 1972-73, $155,129; and in 1973-74, $196,942.[176]

TABLE 5-2

BARRY COLLEGE DEFICITS: 1967-76

Years	1967-68	1969-70	1970-71	1973-74	1974-57	1975-76
Total Deficit	$74,439	264,774	403,500	426,510	600,000	429,128

SOURCE: Minutes, Barry College, Board of Trustees, 9 May 1969, 18 March 1970, 3 March 1971, 26 October 1972, 16 February 1973, 30 October 1973, 21 February 1957, 13 April 1976, and 15 October 1976.

Barry College's deficits could be attributed to several factors. The most obvious causes were the rapid growth in enrollment which precipitated the ambitious expansion program; decreased, then no support from the Adrian Dominicans; and deteriorating older buildings which required extensive repairs. By 1971, the College was borrowing to meet the deficit and to meet operating expenses.[177]

The change in the relationship between Barry College and the Adrian Dominican Congregation was an important cause of Barry's financial difficulties. Not only did the Congregation's annual contribution to the College cease, but, moreover, the Congregation expected Barry to begin repaying the $1,280,245 that the College owed to the Congregation for past advances that had been used for land acquisition, new buildings and equipment, and operating costs.[178] Negotiation of this agreement took two years. It required input from Roman Catholic Church canon lawyers, secular lawyers, and a letter of "sanitation" to Rome describing the transfer of property and financial responsibility from the Adrian Dominican Congregation to Barry College.[179] The final agreement,

dated December 7, 1973, stipulated that the Congregation relinquished control of Barry College to the College's Board of Trustees and that Barry's remaining indebtedness to the Congregation would be repaid without interest. The payments agreed upon were thirty-five thousand dollars on November 1, 1975, and fifty thousand dollars each November 1 until 2004, when the debt was expected to be repaid. The amount remaining was to be paid in full if Barry College were sold.[180]

A variety of strategies were used in an attempt to improve Barry College's financial status. First, the Development Committee began an aggressive campaign to secure donations from corporations, foundations, and individual benefactors. They sought donations ranging from one thousand dollars to ten thousand dollars. Alumni were also expected to contribute. Potential benefactors were recruited to become members of the Lay Advisory Board.[181] The Cresap consultants recommended a professional fund raiser, but the Board of Trustees rejected this option.[182]

An annual fund-raising dinner was initiated in 1971. The first dinner honored President Sister M. Dorothy Browne, with Senator Hubert H. Humphrey as the featured speaker. Tickets were sold for five hundred dollars, two hundred and fifty dollars, one hundred dollars, and fifty dollars. The dinner raised forty-seven thousand dollars.[183] This amount was short of the goal of one hundred thousand dollars, but it was the beginning of a successful fund-raising effort which continues to the present time. Other fund-raising strategies continued. These included soliciting trust funds, gifts of stocks and bonds, and a letter campaign directed at alumnae.[184]

At the same time, the administration initiated a formal departmental and college-wide budget process. Each year, beginning in October 1971 for the 1972-73 academic year, every department submitted a budget which included personnel services and object expenditures. These budget requests were subject to approval, first by the individual department chairman, then by the appropriate dean, and finally by the Vice-President for Business Affairs.[185]

Each year, budget cutbacks were made in all departments. Beginning in 1970, Barry College, in common with many other colleges, decreased the number of its faculty and staff by attrition. That is, new faculty and staff were not hired to replace those who left, unless it was "absolutely necessary to avoid compromising the academic programs."[186] Faculty salaries were "frozen" for two years, from 1972 to 1974. When faculty raises were again granted for the 1974-75 academic year, they fell below the inflation rate.[187] This was validated by three faculty members who stated that "they never kept up with inflation."[188] When new faculty were hired, their salaries were usually lower than those of the faculty they replaced.

When long-range planning began in 1974, academic programs were reviewed every three years for financial soundness as well as for academic merit. Enrollments were projected from admissions department surveys and demographic trends. For example, many departments sought to enlarge their scope to include the growing adult student population. Also, programs were planned to meet federal grant guidelines. Two such programs were the School of Social Work's program to educate Seminole Indian social workers and the Nursing Continuing Education Program.

These programs had a dual effect. They increased revenues from student enrollment and also produced income from federal government grants. Barry College also received Federal Opportunity Grants for student scholarships and federal construction grants for needed buildings.[189]

An integral part of the development effort at Barry College was the solicitation of grants from private industries and foundations. The Independent Colleges and Universities of Florida (ICUF) and the Florida Independent Colleges Foundation (FICF) were organizations comprised of Florida colleges and universities, including Barry. In addition to their stated purpose of informing the public about higher education, the FICF also solicited grants from industries and foundations. This activity continued throughout the 1970s as an integral part of many institutions, including Barry College's, efforts to ease their financial problems.[190]

A continuing fund-raising strategy was to gradually increase tuition in an attempt to compensate for inflation-driven increases in expenses related to the educational program. Table 5-3 depicts tuition increases for the year 1970 through 1980.[191] Although the dollar amount of tuition and fees charged per student more than doubled from 1970 to 1980, the percentage of the college's total income increased from 65.4 percent in 1970-71 to 81.5 percent in 1980. The percentage difference can be attributed mainly to the declining numbers of Adrian Dominican nuns on the faculty. In 1970, 29.8 percent of Barry College's total income was generated by the sisters' "contributed services"; this declined to 4.0 percent in 1980. During these same years, income generated but tuition and fees increased from $1,294,573 in 1970 to

TABLE 5-3

TUITION INCREASES AT BARRY COLLEGE: 1970-1980

Academic Years	1970-71	1975-76	1978-79	1979-80
Undergraduate tuition charged	$1,300	$2,200	$2,600	$2,900

SOURCES: Barry College, "Report submitted to the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools," Miami, Florida, February 1972, p. IV-10; Minutes, Barry College Board of Trustees, 17 May 1974; 16 May 1975; Barry College, "Institutional Self-study. Report to the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools," December 1982, p. IV-4.

$4,452,943 in 1980. Thus, although total income increased in all areas, Barry was even more tuition-driven in 1980 than in 1970. However, as previously stated, all deficits had been removed and a consistent budget process and stable income had been established.[192]

Curriculum

In 1970, an in-depth "curriculum study" involving the Board, administrators, faculty, and students was begun in preparation for the 1972 Southern Association of Colleges and Schools accreditation visit. This was a campus-wide effort involving all divisions of Barry College.[193] The study was organized by the then Vice President for Academic Affairs, Sister Trinita Flood, and has been identified as a major force in many of the subsequent changes of the 1970s. Sister Trinita said, "We took a whole year to examine the curriculum."[194]

The self-study process began with a two-day "curriculum convocation" attended by students, faculty, administrators, alumni, "and even the general public."[195] The conference was held on January 20 and 21, 1970. An ad hoc faculty-student committee then prepared a summary of the conference discussions and proposals for change. These were published by campus newspapers and again discussed by subcommittees, at full faculty meetings, and also at Board of Trustees subcommittee meetings.[196]

The early discussions centered on the College's philosophy and how it could be implemented through the curriculum. Curriculum concepts and related discipline areas were identified. They were

1. Understanding man's origins, meaning and destiny: Theology, Philosophy, Anthropology.

2. Understanding man's relationship to man: Psychology, Ethics, Journalism, Communication through Speech, English, French, German, Spanish, Russian.

3. Understanding man's aesthetic expression: Art, Music, Drama, Literature.

4. Understanding man's place in nature: Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, Natural Geography, Physical Education.

5. Understanding man's place in society: History, Sociology, Economics, Political Science, Human Geography.

6. Understanding man's responsibility to himself and to his fellow man: Business, Education, Nursing, Social Work, Home and Family Life, Library Science.[197]

Another area of intense debate was the institution's mission regarding the liberal arts and professional education; that is, should Barry College remain primarily a liberal arts college or should professional

education become predominant? The eventual conclusion was that "both liberal education and professional studies were needed"[198] and that the liberally educated professional was a better person with better problem-solving skills.[199]

Shortly thereafter, graduation requirements were changed to reflect this decision. The changes included reduction in the total semester hours of course work required for graduation to one hundred twenty. These hours were divided into approximately sixty hours of liberal arts course work, forty to sixty hours of major course work, and twenty to thirty hours of minor course work; or a broad liberal education which included sixty hours of liberal arts, a maximum of thirty semester hours from outside the liberal arts, and a maximum of twenty hours from any subject field. This curriculum encompassed either liberal or professional education, depending on the student's choice of a major. This curriculum was thought to express the college's purpose of providing a well-rounded Christian education while also meeting the needs of Barry's students in 1971.[200] The newly constituted Education Subcommittee of the Board of Trustees became very active in educating the Board to current educational procedures, keeping the curriculum congruent with the College's purpose, and communicating with the academic dean regarding existing and future programs.[201]

Regarding the process of change, the Educational Programs Committee for the Southern Association self-study found that

> change in the curriculum is ordinarily initiated by the faculty within a department. If only the department is affected, a proposed change may be implemented with the approval of the Academic Dean. If the change is interdepartmental, it is reviewed by the College Curriculum Committee and referred to

the President's [Executive] Council. Important changes, for example, introduction of a new major or discontinuance of an existing program, are referred by the President's Council to the Board of Trustees.[202]

The Southern Association Accreditation (SACS) visit occurred from March 19-22, 1972. In their report, the visitors noted that most of the work was done by committees and commended Barry College on the design and implementation of the self-study and subsequent report. The visitors also noted that many of the recommendations made in the report were appropriate and that some had been put into practice. The visitors suggested the establishment of an ongoing "curriculum study or planning committee to regularly review the college-wide curriculum."[203] However, the SACS visitors were unable to find any reports of interdepartmental curriculum planning and "no structure to assure that all departments were represented, since the Academic Dean approved most curriculum changes."[204]

Following the reading of the Southern Association visitors' report, the Barry College Board of Trustees approved the Education Subcommittee's recommendation to establish a "three- to five-year plan for academic development against which goals and priorities can be established and decisions made."[205]

This plan was incorporated within the "Barry College Plan for 1975-78." Each academic area compiled a long-range plan which included a description of programs and majors offered, projected student enrollment, and planned changes.[206] The "Barry College Plan for 1975-78" was approved by the Board of Trustees on February 21, 1975,

with the understanding that the plans would be reviewed and revised each year in light of "fiscal developments."[207]

Faculty members participated in interdepartmental curriculum planning through their representation on the College Curriculum Committee. This committee reviewed changes proposed by the departments and then made recommendations to the Vice President for Academic Affairs, who then presented the proposed changes to the Education Committee of the Board of Trustees; they, in turn, presented the changes to the Board of Trustees for final approval.[208]

This change improved faculty participation in the curriculum development process, but since not all departments had representation on the College Curriculum Committee, many changes still occurred within the departments and may, in fact, have originated with the deans or department chairmen, not the faculty.[209] Therefore, although the College Curriculum Committee provided a mechanism for change, many changes continued to be initiated by administrators. Moreover, in 1976, the Education Subcommittee on the Board of Trustees was still "concerned" with establishing an "Academic Blueprint" for the College.[210] Thus, a pertinent question is, how much of the process really changed?

Over the next several years, the following changes in majors and degrees were initiated: a bachelor of fine arts degree in 1972; a religious studies major; a change in the education major to provide three areas of concentration--early childhood, elementary education, and special education; enrollment of men in the fine arts and allied health programs, all in 1973; and fashion merchandising and social work majors and a dance minor in 1974. These changes were made in response to

changing enrollment patterns, requests to the Admissions Office, and "community requests."[211]

A major curriculum change was the initiation in 1976 of the Division of Adult and Continuing Education. This division was a consolidation of earlier continuing education efforts such as Embry Riddle Aeronautical University's Consortium with Barry College to offer a bachelor's degree to its aeronautical students. Other offerings which included adults along with the younger students were the various English as a second language and bilingual-bicultural programs in English and Spanish.[212]

In 1976, the Department of Continuing Education began offering a Bachelor of Science degree in Professional Studies. This program was intended to assist adults in earning a college degree. Up to twenty-eight credits were granted for professional experience in such fields as accounting, real estate, or office management. The liberal arts requirements were designed to meet Barry College's mission to prepare a liberally educated professional.[213]

This curriculum remained in place throughout the 1970s. New programs and majors, identified through student demand, trends in the professions, and faculty initiation continued to be developed. These included political science and communication arts majors in the School of Arts and Sciences and business management and economics programs in the School of Business. Programs and majors discontinued due to low enrollment included criminal justice, family and consumer science, and sociology.[214]

Despite previous recommendations by the Southern Association, most curricular change was initiated from within the departments and schools, not as a result of evaluation and study of the overall college curriculum. Substantive changes proposed by the schools were then presented to the Academic Affairs Council for approval. New majors and deletions of majors were approved by both the Academic Affairs Council and the Board of Trustees.[215]

According to the 1982 Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Self-study Report, reevaluation of programs and majors was ongoing and conducted in light of the College's mission as well as of enrollment in the various programs. The discontinuance of such programs as family and consumer science and sociology clearly reflected society's changing needs, as did the addition of such programs as business management and communication arts.[216]

Students

As the 1970s began, student enrollment at Barry College remained predominantly female, although there continued to be a small number of men in the Departments of Art and Education, especially in the graduate programs. The Barry-Biscayne Consortium, inaugurated in 1967, continued to attract some Biscayne students to the Barry campus to enroll in courses not available at Biscayne College.[217]   Table 5-4 shows that enrollment continued to grow steadily throughout the 1970s but not quite as dramatically as it increased during the 1960s.[218]

TABLE 5-4

BARRY COLLEGE ENROLLMENT: 1970-1980

Year	1970-71	1972-73	1974-75	1976-77	1978-79
Total Enrollment (Full-time) and Part-time Fall Semesters	1,260	1,403	1,517	1,834	2,033

SOURCE: Minutes, Barry College Board of Trustees, 26 October 1972; 23 October 1974; Barry College, "Long-Range Plan," 1979, p. 8; Fred Burger, "Barry: Change and Tradition," North Dade (Florida) Journal, 25 April 1973; "Enrollment's Up at Barry College," (Miami) Florida Courier, 31 July 1976.

The most important changes in student life at Barry College during the 1970s were the admission of significant numbers of male students and the emergence of the student rights trend at Barry. For many years, small numbers of male students had been enrolled at Barry College. The official inauguration of the Barry-Biscayne Consortium in 1967 increased the number of men on the Barry College campus and improved male student access to such facilities as laboratories and libraries. But the percentage of men present on the Barry campus remained small. In 1972, this proportion was estimated to be 204 male students out of a total of 1,403 students, or 14.5 percent.[219] Although it officially remained a women's college, in 1973 Barry increased the number of men on campus by admitting full-time undergraduate male students to the Allied Health programs.[220]

The Barry Board of Trustees was very slow to approve the change from a women's college to a coeducational institution. The increase in

enrolled male students was first called to the Board's attention in 1972. In 1973, following an "extensive discussion by the trustees,"[221] the Board was urged to take a "philosophic stand on coeducation."[222] The Long-range Planning Committee was charged with "developing a statement of philosophy, financial implications, and procedures for implementation"[223] of coeducation. Although the Barry Board recognized a national trend toward women's colleges becoming coeducational and the Task Force on Coeducation recommended that Barry become coeducational, a motion for coeducation was tabled again in 1974, and once again in February 1975.[224]

The 1975 Long-range Planning Committee report focused on coeducation. This report stated that a "recent survey of full-time under-graduate students reflects overwhelming support for coeducation,"[225] with one hundred twenty-one in favor and forty-seven against. At its October 1975 meeting, the Board of Trustees reviewed the Planning Committee's report and, after "thorough debate," approved a motion to "declare ourselves officially a coeducational institution."[226]

Sister Trinita Flood, who was President of Barry College at that time, stated,

> We said "to all intents and purposes, we really are already co-ed, so why don't we call us what we are." . . . So, we asked the Board, and the Board was skittish about it. At first they said "no." But we kept plugging, . . . we talked about it at great length, many times. . . . Finally, the Board said "yes, it's real, we might as well admit it."[227]

Another change in student life at Barry which also reflected a national trend was the emergence of the student rights movement. Sister Linda Bevilacqua stated that there was very little "due process" in

place when she became Dean of Students in 1970. Student government and a student rights and responsibilities policies were developed between 1970 and 1976. Sister Linda related that she began with an "open forum" for students and faculty at which many student concerns and proposed policy changes were discussed.[228] Students were included in the membership of many college committees and councils, for example, the President's Council the Lay Advisory Board, and the Curriculum Committee. For the first time, students evaluated faculty. Former President Sister M. Dorothy Browne stated that in 1970 the College "received over 4000" student evaluations of faculty.[229]

Another facet of the student rights discussion was "open housing," which at Barry was defined as males visiting women students in their dorms. Although the presence of men in women students' dorm rooms was not approved at that time, in 1972 the Board of Trustees approved elimination of the "sign-in, sign-out" system in the dorms and lengthened the visiting hours in the various dorms' first-floor lounges.[230] Plans were also begun in 1972 for a coffee house in the student union, Thompson Hall, to provide a place for the men and women students to socialize. The coffee house opened in January 1974 and for several years was a popular gathering place for students.[231]

Beginning in 1970, the number of sisters living in the residence halls was reduced. The resident sisters were replaced by a system of student leaders in the dorms, first in the Honors House and later in all the student residences.[232]

Title IX of the United States Education Amendments of 1972 forced many colleges, including Barry, to accelerate the development of student

rights and responsibilities policies. These regulations had a direct effect on Barry, and student housing was one of the areas affected. Although single-sex facilities were permitted under Title IX, comparable facilities were required for both sexes. This meant that Barry College would be required to admit men and to provide dormitories for them.[233] Another federal law, the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974 (the Buckley Amendment), mandated students' access to their own official records. In 1976, in response to these laws, the Student Affairs Committee of the Barry College Board of Trustees began revising the College's student-related policies.[234]

This revision process began with presentation by Sister Linda Bevilacqua to the Board of Trustees of a summary report to inform the Trustees of the work of the Student Affairs Committee. This committee formulated a proposed policy on "Rights and Responsibilities of Students," then presented it to the Barry College Board of Trustees. After the Trustees had had time to consider the policies, a joint meeting was planned so that the Student Affairs Subcommittee could explain the proposed policies. These policies encompassed nondiscriminatory student admission and faculty employment, student and faculty academic freedom, student housing, and campus social activities. Once again, a series of meetings of the Board of Trustees was needed before approval was granted. A "Student Affairs Open Forum" was then held in March 1977 to present the new policies and to provide the opportunity for students to express their concerns. The complete "Rights and Responsibilities of Students" policy was published in the Barry College Student Handbook for 1976-77.[235]

The foregoing is another illustration of the complexity of the change process at Barry College. Although students had been demonstrating for and demanding their rights on other campuses for at least ten years, the process of change proceeded slowly and carefully on the Barry campus. Planning occurred for several years and involved students, faculty, and administration. The actual adaptation of an official student rights and responsibilities policy was greatly facilitated by the passage of federal legislation mandating changes and by careful planning over a three-year period by Barry College students, faculty, and administration.[236]

Faculty

The faculty of Barry College was profoundly affected by the changes of the 1970s. As previously mentioned, the ratio of sisters to lay faculty declined throughout the decade. Other factors affecting the faculty were the increase in part-time faculty; the hiring and pay freezes of the early 1970s, which were related to the college's financial difficulties; the faculty reorganization which replaced tenure with continuing contracts; and the institution of a retirement plan.

The number of faculty at Barry increased as enrollment grew. However, the proportion of Adrian Dominican nuns continued to decline from 23.4 percent in 1969[237] to 20 percent in 1978.[238] A 1970 Miami Herald article stated that the Barry faculty "are increasingly secular and non-Catholic as present teaching nuns are replaced."[239] This decrease in the percentage of sisters on the faculty, which occurred in many orders, had a profound impact on Barry College. The contributed

salaries of the Dominican Sisters declined from 29.2 percent of Educational and General receipts in 1971 to 4 percent in 1980."[240]

As part of Barry College's effort to solve its financial problems, faculty salaries were "frozen for two years," from 1971 to 1973. The percentage of part-time faculty also increased. In the fall of 1971, 33 percent of the total faculty taught part-time. They carried approximately 14 percent of the total number of credits offered. This was justified by some departments, for example, Art and Music, as an opportunity to utilize instructors with special skills. In other departments, the use of part-time faculty was "considered excessive . . . only justified for economic reasons."[241] In 1981, there were ninety-two full-time and seventy-six part-time faculty.[242]

In the early 1970s, there was considerable concern about low faculty salaries. In 1973 the _Miami News_ reported that "Barry College faculty salaries are considerably below national averages."[243] Several surveys revealed low faculty morale related to low salaries, communication problems with administration, and a faculty organization with no real power.[244] Finally, in 1974, faculty raises were reinstituted. Table 5-5 depicts the percentage of increase in Barry College's faculty salaries for the 1974-75 through 1980-81.[245] Sometimes the percentage of increase equaled the cost of living increase, but "they never kept up with inflation."[246]

A survey of the faculty prepared for the 1972 Southern Association of Colleges and Schools accreditation visit revealed faculty dissatisfaction with conditions of employment and the lack of understanding of such policies as promotion, tenure, and academic freedom. As a result

TABLE 5-5

BARRY COLLEGE FACULTY SALARY INCREASES BY PERCENTAGE:
1974-1981

Academic Year	1974-75	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81
% Increase	6.5	6.0	9.0	4.5	7.0

SOURCES: Minutes, Barry College Board of Trustees, 7 December 1973; "Self-study," 1982, p. V-13.

of this survey, and in keeping with national trends, work was begun on reorganizing the Faculty Council. This Council had previously "advised the President."[247] It was reorganized into a Faculty Senate, with subcommittees on Rank, Promotion, and Tenure, to promote "active faculty involvement" in formation and implementation of policy or decisions.[248]

Discussions continued, and faculty reorganization was incorporated into the 1974 Barry College (revised) Bylaws. All full-time faculty are eligible to become senators. The following standing committees of the Faculty Senate meet "on a monthly basis, or as needed: Academic Affairs, Finance, Faculty Welfare, Rank and Promotion, Retention and Dismissal, and Social Affairs."[249] The Barry College Plan for 1975-78 stated that the "Faculty Senate was working toward uniting the faculty,"[250] and that the Finance, Welfare, Academic Affairs, Rank and Promotion committees "would probably continue indefinitely."[251]

The revised policy on faculty appointment and reappointment abolished tenure and substituted a reappointment policy incorporating long-term contracts which is still in effect. A faculty member's initial appointment is for one year. It may be renewed upon a positive

review for each of the succeeding two years. Upon successful completion of the third year, a faculty member may be granted a three-year contract. Successful completion of this six-year probationary period results in continuing contracts. These contracts are for five years each, with a provision for formal evaluation every five years and renegotiation of salary, fringe benefits, and "other considerations each year."[252]

Provisions for a secure retirement plan became a concern after Barry College's separation from the Adrian Dominican Order. In May 1974, after three months of study and discussion among faculty, administrators, and the Board of Trustees, a plan was presented in which faculty and other staff could choose the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (TIAA) and/or the College Retirement Equities Fund (CREF). All full-time lay employees were eligible to participate in the plan. Barry College matched up to 5 percent, and the employee contributed 5 percent of his or her salary. Participants in the Barry College retirement plan could choose what percent of the total contribution to place in each fund. Upon retirement, participants received a monthly income in accordance with their contracts.[253] Although participation was voluntary after the first year of employment, the TIAA/CREF plan offered an improvement over the previous plan in which the employee contributed 5 percent, but the College did not contribute.[254]

Another change that affected faculty and staff was the previously discussed Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. With regard to employees, all programs receiving any kind of federal assistance were forbidden to discriminate against employees or applicants for employment

on the basis of race, color, sex, or national origin. An outgrowth of Title IX was a statement of academic freedom for students and faculty. Faculty were forbidden to discriminate against students who held different opinions from their course instructors,[255] and administration was forbidden from discriminating against faculty, "as long as their views were not subversive."[256] Another part of the academic freedom statement said that "denial of campus facilities shall not be used as a censorship device."[257]

In summary, the Barry College faculty changed along with national trends, and the College developed from a women's college to a university. The percentage of Sisters on the faculty declined as an increasing number left the convent. The percentage of faculty holding doctorates increased from 29 percent in 1970 to 55 percent in 1981. This improvement in faculty academic qualifications also reflected national trends and Barry College's progress toward becoming a university.[258] Faculty morale became a concern from 1971-73, due to low faculty salaries and to the perception that faculty had had little influence upon the College's decision-making processes. Title IX mandated nondiscrimination in faculty hiring and retention policies. The College's 1974 bylaws revision began the change from an advisory Faculty Council to a Faculty Senate which, although still advisory, gave faculty a wider avenue for participation in the College's decision making. So, Barry had a faculty which, in 1980, had improved academic qualifications, an increased voice in decision making, and a better retirement plan. Moreover, most of the faculty interviewed did not perceive the abolishment of tenure as a threat but rather as a way to

improve the faculty as a group and as a stimulus to continued professional growth and development.[259]

Extracurricular Activities

During the 1970s, Barry College continued to have many extracurricular activities for its students and also for the community. Most of the ceremonial events such as Founders' Day, the Rose and Candle ceremony, and Commencement continued. Student publications, for example, the newspaper _Hourglass_, and the annual _Torch and Shield_, continued to provide an outlet for student writers and a vehicle of communication for the campus. Religious activities, Masses, and other liturgical celebrations continued.

Student clubs and other organizations reflected changing student interests, including the trend toward more older students who did not reside on the Miami Shores campus. For example, the student home economics, education, and physical education majors associations were discontinued in 1973, and the Nursing Student Association and the Black Students for Progress were founded.[260]

The Barry Culture Series, the Barry Lecture Series, and other timely conferences continued to offer lectures, play, and musical events to the campus and the community. The programs offered continued to reflect national and local concerns, for example, an "Aging Conference" in 1973 and a "Minority Concerns Institute" in 1974.[261] In 1976, Barry celebrated our country's bicentennial with a "Carnival of Famous Faces" which honored well-known leaders in our country's history.[262]

Throughout the decade of the 1970s, students were encouraged to pursue community service in order "to increase outreach between the college and the community."[263] All of Barry College's extracurricular activities were planned to increase the College's involvement with and visibility in South Florida.

Leadership

Among the influential leaders of Barry College during the 1970s were Sister M. Dorothy Browne, Board Chairman Shepard Broad, and Sister M. Trinita Flood. Sister Dorothy was President of Barry College from 1963 until 1974. Her leadership and influence have been previously described.[264]

Shepard Broad was the first layman elected Chairman of the Barry College's Board of Trustees. When he was elected in 1972, Broad was Mayor of Bay Harbor Islands. From 1962-1970, he had been a charter member of the College's Lay Advisory Board and had served as a member of the Board of Trustees from 1970-72. Broad was described as a "Miami Beach financier, attorney, and founder and chairman of American Savings and Loan Association of Miami Beach."[265] He was also Vice President and a Board member of the Greater Miami Jewish Federation and a founder and trustee of both Mt. Sinai and St. Francis hospitals.

In addition to being a major benefactor of Barry College, Broad led the College's development during the 1970s. He was deeply involved in solving the College's financial problems by his contributions, by soliciting other benefactors, and by using his knowledge of banking and finance.[266]

When Broad was elected Board Chairman, there was a great deal of discussion and concern regarding the newly reorganized College's mission. Sister Trinita Flood stated that Broad provided strong leadership to assure that Barry remained a Catholic, liberal arts college. Later, in 1976, Broad led the Board of Trustees through many discussions of Barry's future as a coeducational college. Finally, in 1976, Barry College was declared coeducational.[267]

In common with other Barry College leaders, Shepard Broad received many honors. He was elected Mayor of the town of Bay Harbor Islands for twenty-seven years. In 1973, he was named Mayor Emeritus of Bay Harbor Islands. In 1974, the Barry College Auditorium building was named the Shepard Broad Center for the Performing Arts. In 1974, among his many honors, Broad received the Public Service Medallion of the Jewish Chautaqua Society. The Broad Causeway, which connects Bay Harbor Islands and North Miami is named for Shepard Broad.[268]

Sister Mary Trinita Flood, O.P., was another important leader at Barry College. Sister Trinita first came to Barry in 1946 as an Instructor of Speech and Drama. She later served the College as Registrar, as the Academic Dean, and as Dean of the Graduate Division. In 1972, Sister Trinita became Vice President for Academic Affairs and, in 1974, President of Barry College.[269] When she became President of Barry College, Sister Trinita became involved in trying to solve the College's financial problems. She stated that much energy was expended toward resolving the annual financial crises, especially during her first two years in office. Sister Trinita described this as a "cooperative effort." She worked diligently to involve the College and

community in the problem. Several faculty members remembered Sister's leadership. They stated that Sister Trinita presented the College's problems to the faculty and staff and asked for their help. Her leadership style was described as "cooperative," and, indeed, the aforementioned faculty stated that Sister was "accessible" and that they appreciated her cooperative attitude.[270]

Sister Trinita stated that while she was President of Barry College, she had two primary goals: to strengthen the College academically and financially. She said that she was "determined not to close Barry."[271] Her experience at St. Dominic College, St. Charles, Illinois, which closed in 1970, helped her in her efforts to prevent further problems for Barry. Accordingly, Sister Trinita worked with the Board of Trustees and with the Division of Business Affairs. A financial planning system was introduced and articulately explained by the President. Several former students and faculty members stated that although she was not as "formidable as Sister Dorothy," she was still "in charge,"[272] and would make some decisions without faculty input. Sister Trinita skillfully led Barry College's gradual, planned growth and transition to a university.

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CHAPTER VI
THE SUBSYSTEM

<u>Barry College School of Nursing: 1953-1970</u>

The Barry College School of Nursing was founded in 1953 as the Department of Nursing of the Division of Studies. Two previous attempts to establish a collegiate school of nursing at Barry had been unsuccessful. The first tentative plans, in 1941, were for a five-year program in collaboration with St. Vincent's Hospital in Jacksonville, Florida. These plans were abandoned in late 1941, when the outbreak of World War II "caused many developments to be curtailed."[1] In 1949, Barry College again began planning a nursing program. It was to be named the "Sancta Maria School of Nursing." The planned curriculum was to be a four-year program in affiliation with St. Mary's hospital in West Palm Beach, Florida. The new school accepted twelve students in 1950, but the nursing program enrollment was "limited," and the program was "very expensive," so it was "postponed." The first class did complete their two years on the Barry campus, followed by two years and three summer at St. Mary's.[2] Finally, in 1953, following continued requests from the community and consultations from the National League of Nursing Education, the Florida Board of Nurse Registration, and two other nationally known consultants, the Barry College Department of Nursing opened and enrolled twenty freshman students.[3] The nursing students studied on the Miami Shores campus for their first two academic years,

which included the summer session of classes and clinical experience at St. Francis Hospital between their freshman and sophomore years in 1954.[4] The first curriculum required "one hundred sixty-four semester hours credit to be completed in four academic years and four summer sessions."[5] Anne Desmond, a member of the "charter class,"stated that the rigorous summer schedule included classes and clinical experiences from 8:00 in the morning until 5:00 in the afternoon, five days each week, with additional required study hours from 7:00 until 9:00 each evening. The nursing students lived at the hospital during their clinical experiences and were only allowed one weekend "leave" per month.[6] In January 1955, the twenty-one remaining members of the "charter class" received their nursing caps in a ceremony recognizing successful completion of their first and one and one-half years of nursing education, and their dedication to nursing.[7] The last two and one-half years of the nursing curriculum were comprised primarily of nursing theory courses and related clinical experiences in the hospital and at a number of public health departments in Florida. Students were not permitted to be married and were required to live at St. Francis Hospital during most of their clinical semesters. Because of their rigorous schedule of classes and clinical practice, most of the nursing students were unable to be actively involved in campus activities unrelated to their nursing studies. Nineteen members of the first class received Bachelor of Science in Nursing degrees on June 3, 1957.[8]

When it opened in 1953, the nursing program was organized as a department within the Academic Division of Barry College. The Department Chairman was Sister Helen Margaret McGinley, O.P. She was

responsible to the Academic Dean, Sister M. Dorothy Browne, O.P..[9]   The
curriculum of four academic years and four summers was representative of
collegiate nursing curricula of the 1950s.   These curricula combined
liberal arts and professional studies but retained the hospital-based
clinical focus of the diploma nursing programs.   At Barry, two minors
were required: biology and social studies. Barry College's Department
of Nursing also continued Florence Nightingale's traditional emphasis on
selection of students of excellent character as well as academic
ability. Furthermore, in common with Nightingale, Barry insisted that
their nursing students remain unmarried.[10]

One aim of collegiate nursing education, stressed from the very
beginning of the Barry College nursing program, was preparation for
nursing leadership.   Both faculty and students were encouraged to
participate in local and state nursing organizations.   In 1955, Sister
Helen Margaret was chosen as a delegate from Dade County to the Florida
Nurses Association convention.   In 1956 and 1957, senior nursing
students Mary Rose Riordan and Eleanor Perez were elected President and
Vice President of the Florida Association of Student Nurses.[11]

The nursing program grew gradually for the next few years, as did
all of Barry College. In 1957, Sister Loretta Michael Turner, O.P., was
appointed Nursing Department Chairman. She accelerated the department's
earlier efforts to attain National League for Nursing (NLN) accredita-
tion of the Department of Nursing. Although NLN accreditation criteria
were used as a model for establishing and maintaining departmental
educational standards, much more work and planning was to be needed
before accreditation was finally granted. The NLN provided guidance and

consultation for the Department in their efforts to fulfill NLN criteria. In their initial review in 1957, the NLN visitors questioned the adequacy of the Barry Department of Nursing's financial resources, curriculum, and also the nursing faculty's academic preparation and participation in campus governance.[12] In 1961, Mary F. Quamby of the NLN wrote that although progress had been made toward meeting league criteria, accreditation was deferred until "the preparation of the majority of the faculty meet the criteria,"[13] (a Master of Science in Nursing). In 1962, subsequent to two NLN accreditation team visits and two external consultations which had helped the Department with needed change, the league granted initial accreditation to the Barry College Department of Nursing. However, the NLN stipulated the following condition: The reports of the Department's progress toward meeting the Board's recommendation must be submitted each year to maintain the initial accreditation. One recommendation was to improve the faculty's academic qualifications.[14]

The Barry College nursing curriculum evolved and changed in response to need created by rapid population growth and the increased availability of clinical practice sites. Clinical sites utilized included the Dade County Department of Public Health, Variety Children's Hospital, Mercy Hospital, St. Francis Hospital, and the South Florida State Hospital.[15] By 1964, there were seventy nursing majors, freshmen through seniors, enrolled in the nursing program under Sister Loretta Michael's direction. The curriculum was comprised of one-hundred forty-two semester hours earned during four academic years and one summer. Students were still required to submit proof of their good character and

to remain single, but they were allowed to live either in campus residence halls or in their homes. During this time, the faculty grew from one in 1956 to five in 1964. Of these, two were Adrian Dominicans and three were lay nurses.[16]

In 1964, the Collegiate Board of Review of the Department of Baccalaureate and Higher Degree Programs of the NLN notified Barry College and the Department of Nursing that no further progress reports would be needed until the next scheduled evaluation and review in 1969.[17] From 1964 until 1968, the curriculum remained relatively unchanged except for changes mandated by college-wide alterations in nonnursing requirements such as theology or biology. The total semester hours of credit required for the Bachelor of Science in Nursing degree was one-hundred forty-five, and two minors were still required by the College. In 1968, another self-study was undertaken. As a result of the 1968 self-study, the number of minors was reduced to one, biology.

Sister Loretta Michael Turner was Director of the Department of Nursing until 1969. The number of faculty members fluctuated between six and eight during the Fall and Spring semesters. There were three nursing faculty who supervised the students' summer work. However, only two faculty members, Sister Loretta Michael and Sister Charlyn, were nuns.[18]

From its inception in 1953 until the 1970s, the Department of Nursing was supported financially by the College. Funds generated by tuition were supplemented by earnings from invested endowments and the contributed salaries of the Dominican sisters. From its founding until the early 1970s, the slow by steady growth of Barry College, and its

Department of Nursing, was adequately supported by the College. Budget proposals, submitted by the Director with "suggestions" by the nursing faculty, were "consistently approved by the college."[19] Beginning in the late 1960s, "the dearth of qualified nurse-faculty on the national level" made negotiations for qualified faculty "highly competitive."[20]

Barry College School of Nursing: 1970-1980

The changes that occurred at Barry College in the School of Nursing during the years 1970 to 1980 began earlier, in 1968, with the initiation of another self-study in preparation for an NLN accreditation review visit. The visit was initially scheduled for October 1969. At that time, Sister Loretta Michael Turner, O.P., was Chairman of the Department of Nursing; there were seventy-eight nursing majors and eight full-time faculty members.[21] During the 1968-69 academic year, when the nursing faculty was supposed to be preparing for the 1970 NLN visit, Sister Loretta Michael was frequently absent. Her leadership was described as "sporadic." Then, at the end of the 1969-70 academic year, Sister Loretta Michael resigned and "left abruptly."[22] Subsequently, the 1969 NLN visit was postponed until 1970, and Sister Judith Ann Balcerski, O.P., was sent to Barry to become Acting Chairman of the Department of Nursing.[23]

Dr. Balcerski reported that when she assumed the position of Acting Director of the Department of Nursing, she had had previous experience as a hospital director of nursing but no experience as a nursing educator, educational administrator, or curriculum developer. Three of the seven faculty members had master's degrees, while four had only BSN

degrees. A consultant, Dr. Marion McKenna from the University of Kentucky, was engaged to help the Acting Director and the nursing faculty "put together the 1970 Self-study Report."[24] Louise McCormick Geiss, who began teaching in the Barry College Department of Nursing in 1969, related that she and three other faculty members had no experience in teaching or in curriculum development. Consequently, she said "nobody knew what they were doing."[25] Geiss identified McKenna as a "magnetic, charismatic" person who aggressively led the acting chairman and the faculty through the process of their self-evaluation and the subsequent written report. They identified some needed curriculum changes which were begun in 1970.[26]

Curriculum Change Process

To begin their self-evaluation, Sister Judith Ann and Dr. McKenna organized a series of meetings where the faculty worked as a "committee of the whole" to prepare the self-evaluation report and for the subsequent visit of the accreditating team. The proportion of liberal arts to professional studies courses was an issue among nursing faculty, as it was among the faculties of other professional programs at Barry College. Several meetings were devoted to debating just exactly how many credits were needed in the nursing major and how many in liberal arts studies. The College's previous requirement of two minors was changed in 1968, but the Department of Nursing's requirement of one-hundred forty-two credits for graduation was not reduced. Moreover, the Florida State Board of Nursing also required a minimum number of clock hours to be spent in theory classes and clinical practice in nursing.[27]

Louise Geiss related that she and many other faculty members were quite anxious about the accreditation visit planned for February 16 through 19, 1970. She said that the self-evaluation process had made them aware of such problems as the large number of credits, lack of adequate faculty academic preparation, and the Acting Chairman's inexperience but that there was insufficient time to remedy these problems.[28] Although the visitors, Drs. Annabelle Hautraft and Shirley Hall, were gracious and offered many helpful suggestions, the faculty felt uneasy about the visit, and its possible outcome, denial of continuing accreditation.[29]

Following the accreditation visit, the Board of Review of the Department of Baccalaureate and Higher Degree Programs of the National League for Nursing warned Barry College that "accreditation will be withdrawn in the Spring of 1972 unless substantial progress is made in meeting board recommendations."[30] These recommendations included securing "an academically qualified administrator for the Department of Nursing," recruiting faculty qualified at the master's level to teach in the "areas of obstetric nursing, nursing of children, and psychiatric nursing," implementing the "presently identified unifying approach" in the nursing curriculum, and decreasing the "number of contact hours" in the clinical nursing courses.[31]

After reviewing the NLN's recommendations, the nursing faculty began searching for ways to "base each course more firmly on the conceptual framework and six program objectives."[32] The faculty was urged to "consult among themselves to assume complete coverage of necessary content, yet avoid duplication."[33] Monthly and bimonthly

meetings were held throughout the year. These meetings included all the nursing faculty who were called a "committee of the whole," the Curriculum Committee.[34] The meetings were primarily devoted to a thorough evaluation of all nursing courses and subsequent revision of course objectives and sequencing of course content. In September 1970, Sister Shiela Maria Lewis replaced Sister Judith Ann Balcerski as Acting Chairperson, and Mrs. Lois M. Selvaggi, who held a master's degree and had experience in curriculum development, joined the faculty to lead their curriculum work.[35] They began by again reviewing the NLN recommendations. Dr. McKenna continued regular consultation visits to "1) aid in refinement of clinical objectives, 2) aid in development of a conceptual framework, and 3) confer with individual faculty regarding their own areas."[36]

The curriculum revision process began with a discussion "what faculty believes nursing to be."[37] Chairman Selvaggi asked the group to "brainstorm." The resulting list of faculty beliefs about nursing included the following:

> 1) Nursing is an art, a science, and a process; 2) nursing includes both curing illness and promoting health through health education and management; 3) nursing is an instrument of society and is affected by society; 4) nursing includes delivery of many health services; 5) nurses are members of a helping profession.[38]

Sister Shiela Maria then asked each faculty member to formulate her own definition of nursing and be prepared to discuss it at the next meeting with consultant Dr. Marion McKenna.

McKenna, Selvaggi, and Sister Shiela Maria then established a structure for the curriculum revision process which included stating

their beliefs about nursing, nursing education, and the learning process. This was to be followed by deriving a statement of the Department's philosophy, purpose, and the program's objectives. The philosophy statement would depict what the graduate would be able to do. The next step planned was to identify achievement expected at various levels within the program, for example, at the end of the sophomore and junior years. This was to be followed by identification of content strands in the curriculum. When these preliminary steps had been accomplished, individual faculty were expected to review all course outlines for duplication of content and prepare course objectives and outlines to present to the faculty for approval. The final step planned was preparation of clinical evaluation tools for the nursing courses.[39]

McKenna also met with individual faculty members to help them refine their course objectives. These meetings were followed by regular meetings at which the planned curriculum revision process was begun. Although curriculum theorists recommended a linear process, McKenna suggested that the faculty work simultaneously on the definition and philosophy of nursing, the program objectives, and course objectives and content.[40] This recommendation was meant to save time, because the entire curriculum revision process had to be completed by the fall of 1971.[41] The curriculum revision continued throughout the 1970-71 academic year. There were many "heated discussions" before the program's philosophy of nursing and program objectives were revised. Dr. McKenna consulted monthly and corresponded with the nursing faculty between visits. In November 1970, the program's philosophy and outcome objectives were approved by the faculty "after much discussion"; then,

the rest of the academic year was needed for the faculty to agree on specific behavioral objectives for each level and course.[42] For example, McKenna wrote to the faculty in November 1970 asking for clarification of a course objectives, "How do you require that students demonstrate personal and social fitness?"[43] A series of meetings and "many discussions" followed. These meetings were held among level and course faculty, alternating with faculty meetings and McKenna's consultation visits. Faculty needed a lot of guidance in their consideration of the relationship of program, level and course objectives, and content. This curriculum work continued throughout the spring of 1970 and was integrated into yet another self-study in preparation for accreditation visitors from the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools.[44] Three faculty members reported that during the 1970-71 curriculum revision effort they needed considerable help and that Dr. McKenna provided much needed guidance and leadership.

The 1971-72 South Association Self-study was a campus-wide effort which included all departments. Subcommittees from the various departmental levels were assigned to prepare suggested responses for discussion by the total faculty.[46] The Department of Nursing was asked to consider their "basic belief regarding the Department's role in the institution's programs."[47] The discussions focused on the relationship between liberal and professional education. Following a considerable amount of discussion, the nursing faculty decided that both liberal and professional education were needed. Desmond stated that the nursing faculty concluded that "the liberally educated professional was a better person and better able to problem solve and that liberal arts study

should serve as the foundation upon which professional education is built."[48] The Department of Nursing Self-study further stated that although the department's philosophy was consistent with National League for Nursing guidelines, the role of the nursing program is not reflected in the college's present statement of purpose"[49] as a liberal arts college and that modification was needed.

The year's effort concluded with work to devise clinical evaluation methods which demonstrated behaviorally that students could fulfill curriculum, level, and course objectives. McKenna was also involved in designing the student evaluations. An example of one of the revised objectives stated that "the student will demonstrate understanding of infant feeding by explaining it to the patient."[50]

The last task of the year was to "study all course outlines during the summer, eliminate duplication of content, and submit for Fall 1971."[51] In her memo, Sister Shiela quoted from the 1970 report of the NLN visitors which recommended that the faculty eliminate these duplications.[52]

When the 1971-72 academic year began, the nursing faculty continued their work on a curriculum evaluation system. For the first time in the Department's history, nursing faculty committees included student representation.[53] Development of a student evaluation tool dominated faculty curriculum work during the fall of 1971. Strategies used included gathering data from other nursing programs describing their evaluation systems and from Barry nursing graduates describing how well prepared they felt for their careers. Also included were current

student's perceptions of the quality and practicality of the nursing program and continued consultation from Dr. McKenna.[54]

In January 1972, a "Progress Report" was submitted to the National League for Nursing in response to the Board of Review's 1970 recommendations. This report described the Department of Nursing's involvement in the Southern Association Self-Study and the resulting changes in the college curriculum. A major change was decreased liberal arts requirements which "allowed nursing strengthen the nursing component."[55] The progress report also documented that three additional masters-prepared nursing faculty had been hired; that Dr. Marion McKenna "had consulted for curriculum development and formulation of evaluation tools";[56] that the nursing curriculum had been revised to include behavioral objectives, content strands, and to eliminate duplication of content; and that faculty salaries had been increased to a level competitive with other nursing programs.[57] A major planned change was a refocusing of the teaching-learning process from a teacher-centered, primarily lecture mode to a student-centered focus. In order to facilitate student involvement and discovery learning, the primary responsibility was placed on the student. Students were integrally involved with the various faculty in planning learning experiences. Then student-directed seminars with faculty as resource persons replaced the previous lecture-centered curriculum. Both the College and the Department of Nursing decreased the total number of credits required for graduation to one hundred twenty, thus making the nursing curriculum more like that of other nursing programs and other Barry College majors.[58] The College and its Department of Nursing were notified in April 1972 that the NLN

Board of Review for Baccalaureate and Higher Degree Programs had "granted continuing accreditation and removed the 'warning' from this program."[59]

Implementation of the revised curriculum included a detailed study of the leadership component, a search for additional clinical agencies for students' clinical experiences, and continued curriculum evaluation. The curriculum work became less intense until 1975, when planning for the next NLN self-study began. Desmond stated that faculty had "academic freedom" in implementing the nursing courses, "as long as the objectives were met."[60]

The curriculum evaluation system developed as follows: In 1972, a survey was designed which asked School of Nursing graduates to rate the overall program as excellent, good, fair, or inadequate; whether it prepared them for their present position in nursing; whether they had problems making the transition from student to graduate nurse; what they thought were their most helpful clinical nursing courses; and whether they were enrolled in graduate study.[61] Later, beginning in 1976, the graduate survey was revised. Graduates were asked to rate themselves on how well they fulfilled the Barry College School of Nursing's terminal behavioral statements. Additionally, if the graduate consented, her employer was also asked to evaluate her on preparation for her current position, how well she made the transition from student to graduate nurse, and how well she fulfilled the School's terminal behaviors.[62]

The School of Nursing Evaluation Committee also developed a system for Student Evaluation of Course and Instructor and a Faculty Evaluation Form. An ad hoc committee formulated a list of traits "upon which

faculty should be evaluated by student."[63] The Nursing Dean, Sister Judith Ann, submitted the 1973-74 Faculty Evaluation Form to the Academic Dean, Sister Trinita, "for suggested changes." Balcerski related that Sister Trinita responded that there were "no presently established evaluation criteria";[64] therefore, another ad hoc committee was appointed to formulate evaluation criteria for the nursing faculty.[64] Refinement of the evaluation of student clinical performance was also recommended and work begun on establishing "written standards of safe and unsafe practice."[65] The graduate surveys and the student evaluations of the courses were later used as input when curriculum changes were considered.

In 1974, another major curriculum evaluation and revision was begun in preparation for an NLN visit in 1976. To prepare for the curriculum development effort, the School of Nursing sent faculty member Lois Selvaggi to a NLN curriculum evaluation workshop. Also, faculty were requested to read the NLN accreditation criteria and such curriculum development materials as Bevis' <u>Curriculum Building in Nursing</u> and Chater's "A Conceptual Framework for Curriculum Development."[66] During the 1974-75 and 1975-76 academic years, faculty met biweekly as a "committee of the whole." During the summer of 1975, Nursing Capitation funds were used to pay the entire faculty while they worked full-time on the curriculum revision.[67]

The discussions began with consideration of the strengths and weaknesses of the current curriculum, its conceptual framework, and forecasts of future changes as a "basis for curriculum selection,"[68] for example, changes in American family structure and economic changes.

Once the need for further study and evaluation was identified, small groups of faculty were assigned to work on evaluation of such components as Instructional Programs, Research, Publications and Services, Special Program, Student Services and Personnel, and Budget.[69] The small work groups then reported to the total faculty. The biweekly meetings consisted of "lengthy discussions" of various components of the curriculum beginning with the philosophy and conceptual framework. Brainstorming was frequently used to generate ideas. Faculty member Anne Desmond stated that a lot of time was spent on the philosophy and conceptual framework. These discussions centered mainly on defining the concepts of man, nursing, society, health, and nursing. Desmond remembered that "sometimes we argued over semantics. . . . Sister Judith Ann led the faculty in their discussions, and she usually managed to get a consensus."[70]

Balcerski provided needed structure by setting deadlines for the curriculum work to be accomplished. For example, the philosophy statement was to be completed by June 7, the program objectives by June 21, conceptual framework by June 31, and level behavioral statements by August 16. Faculty members Louise Geiss and Bobbe Nelson both related that they and most of the other faculty members appreciated Sister Judith's leadership and that most felt able to accomplish the work within the designated time frame. However, Geiss said that she had to do a lot of reading at home and that she worked on her course behavioral statements while she was on vacation. Faculty were also given specific instructions, according to NLN criteria, about what to include in their respective course syllabus.[71]

When the summer was over, the Barry College nursing faculty had revised the School of Nursing's philosophy, program objectives, conceptual frameworks, and the behavioral objectives for each level (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior).[72]

In July 1975, Sister Judith Ann traveled to New York to visit the National League for Nursing. She consulted with League curriculum experts and reviewed "several recent accreditation reports"[73] that the NLN provided. This visit helped Balcerski to further structure the faculty's curriculum work and also enabled her and Lois Selvaggi to begin writing the report.[74]

As sections of the Barry College School of Nursing's Self-study were written, they were presented to the faculty for discussion and suggestions for revision. One report began "Please read with patience and humor!"[75] At the same time, faculty were working in their small groups to revise their individual courses. Proposed course recommendations were also presented to the faculty for approval and suggestions for improvement. Louise Geiss stated that most of the faculty felt comfortable with the revised curriculum and also with the Self-study report. According to Geiss, this was because they had worked so closely together in revising the curriculum and in helping Sister Judith and Selvaggi to write the Self-study.[76]

The National League for Nursing accreditation team visited from February 17 through 19, 1976. The NLN visitors met with College administrators, admissions officers, the library director, various nursing faculty, and nursing students. The visitors also observed nursing students and faculty in classroom sessions and clinical

practice.[77] Balcerski, Geiss, and Nelson all remembered the 1976 League visit as a positive experience for the faculty. Nelson said, "The League was pleased with the College's restructuring and the resulting improvement of nursing's status from department to school."[78] Geiss recalled that the visitors asked questions about how the nursing courses implemented level objectives and how they helped students grow toward the program's outcome objectives. Geiss said, "We had to validate what was written in the Self-study report."[79] Balcerski related that the NLN visitors recognized the Barry School of Nursing's effort to increase nursing student participation in curriculum planning and decision making. Balcerski also stated that the visitors were pleased that the nursing faculty recognized that they still needed to improve their evaluation system and further encouraged the faculty to continue developing program, faculty, and student evaluations.[80]

In 1976, the Barry College School of Nursing received continuing accreditation from the National League for Nursing. The NLN Board of Review noted that although all nursing faculty had master's degrees, some of these master's were in fields other than nursing. Therefore, the NLN Board recommended that "concerted efforts be directed toward securing faculty who are academically and professionally qualified in their areas of teaching responsibility."[81] The Board also complimented the Barry nursing faculty on their intense involvement in curriculum design and implementation and recommended that the faculty continue these efforts. The NLN Board of Review also encouraged the Dean to continue her education.[82]

The Barry College School of Nursing dean and faculty did continue their curriculum development efforts, particularly refinement of their evaluation system. They also began to develop a research strand within the nursing curriculum. This change began in the Fall of 1976 with Nursing 459, a two-credit independent study encompassing "a clinical study and research paper."[83] This independent study evolved, by 1980, into Nursing 401, a two-credit nursing research course.[84]

Following the success of the 1975 Summer Curriculum sessions, two more weekend retreats were held in December 1977 and May 1978. These sessions were used to "examine everything being taught." Geiss and Nelson described them as "very detailed," "lots of work," but useful in determining needed changes.[85]

The strategy of using annual goals was also continued. Changes that eventually culminated in the development of the Continuing Education Department, the Registered Nurse Option, the Accelerated Option, and a Master of Science in Nursing program all began with the practice of formulating annual goals by brainstorming to consider many possibilities for development and growth of the Barry College School of Nursing.[86]

Barry Nursing Students of the 1970s

In the 1972-73 academic year, the majority of Barry College nursing students continued to be unmarried. They were, by then, allowed to live off campus and were also beginning to be more active in determining policies related to them. For example, in December 1972, a Student Uniform Committee was formed to review the Department of Nursing's

uniform policies. This committee developed a questionnaire and subsequently surveyed students regarding the existing uniform policy. This survey revealed that students wanted a change from the standard uniform dress. They expressed their preference for a choice between a white dress or a white "pants suit" with the Barry College insignia and a red stripe on the left sleeve to "designate their class level." This change was approved early in 1973.[87]

Although enrollment grew gradually, due to "space limitations," nursing student enrollment was limited to approximately fifty freshmen and forty sophomores for the 1973-74 academic year.[88] Then enrollment was gradually increased so that by 1980, total enrollment in the School of Nursing reached two hundred and twelve. Table 6-1 shows the growth of the School from a total of ninety students in 1970 to two hundred and twelve in 1980.[89]

TABLE 6-1

BARRY COLLEGE SCHOOL OF NURSING ENROLLMENT 1970-80

Year	1970	1972	1974	1976	1978	1980
Number of Students	94	115	165	188	221	212

SOURCE: Barry College School of Nursing "Enrollment Summary" typescript, prepared as an exhibit for the National League of Nursing accreditation visit, January 1984.

In July 1975, as part of the School's self-evaluation process, a faculty/student Self-study Committee on Students was organized. The Committee was comprised of five students and three faculty members. Over the next three months, this Committee developed student policies and procedures for personal and professional conduct, academic freedom, grading procedures, confidentiality of student records, and professional grooming and uniforms.[90] These policies were based on the Barry College student rights policies, the American Nurses Association's (ANA) 1968 Code for Nurses, and the Florida Nursing Student Association (FNSA) 1969 Student Bill of Rights. The nursing students also wanted to form a grievance committee but were advised to "wait for the College to form a grievance procedure, . . . the School of Nursing will then pattern its grievance procedure after the College's."[91] This was an important example of student participation on a School of Nursing committee. The committee's extensive use of both College resources and the ANA and FNSA guidelines illustrates the increasing sophistication of both nursing students and faculty and also an awareness of the students' rights movement on the Barry campus and nationally.

Another area of concern among nursing faculty and students of the 1970s was drug use and abuse. When the College formulated policies regarding student use of drugs and alcohol, the School of Nursing discussed the College's policies. They invited Dean of Students Sister Linda Bevilacqua, O.P., to attend a faculty meeting to explain and discuss these policies. Faculty also considered the Florida Board of Nursing guidelines regarding drug use and abuse.[92] Sister Linda stated that although the College's policy forbidding drug and alcohol abuse was

clear and widely circulated among students, she encouraged all faculty to attempt to help students to avoid drug and alcohol abuse or to discontinue said use if they had begun. She urged nursing and other faculty members to approach suspected student drug abusers in a helping manner. Hospitalization was one option offered. If offers of help were not accepted, students were advised to leave the College. Sister Linda stated that it was seldom necessary to use due process against these students. She further stated that because the College was small, most of the students were well known to her and the faculty, and most of the "few problems that occurred were handled quietly and in a constructive manner,"[93] so that students were able to return to Barry College when their drug or alcohol use was controlled.

Faculty member Louise Geiss related that the School of Nursing developed a more structured drug and alcohol abuse policy than the rest of Barry College. They were able to do this because the Florida Nurse Practice Act of 1975 specifically addressed drug use and abuse among nurses. At Barry, nursing students suspected of drug or alcohol abuse were counseled to get help. If they refused and were exhibiting obvious behavioral changes such as poor academic or clinical performance, they were "removed" from school. This policy was published in the Nursing Student Handbook and was also announced to students on the first day of each semester of every nursing class. Thus, students who had drug or alcohol problems were counseled in an attempt to persuade them to seek help voluntarily. However, nursing students could be involuntarily "removed" from the nursing major because the Florida Nurse Practice Act mandated reporting and treatment of drug or alcohol abuse by nurses.

During the 1970s, the number of nursing faculty increased from nine to fourteen. There were never more than three sisters, so as the number of nursing faculty increased, the proportion of nuns to lay faculty decreased. This mirrored the composition of the College faculty as a whole.[95]

During this same time period, the proportion of master's prepared nursing faculty increased from 50 percent in 1970 to 100 percent in 1980. Moreover, the Dean, Sister Judith Ann Balcerski, and faculty member Lois M. Selvaggi had by 1980 both earned their Ph.D.s in higher education administration.[96]

The changes in Barry College faculty policies and procedures made during the 1970s were discussed in nursing faculty meetings. However, nursing faculty interviewed reported that most changes were announced by the Nursing Dean or Academic Vice President as official policy. Many changes were not presented for faculty input prior to their official adoption. Dr. Balcerski noted that campus decision making was "more decentralized after 1974,"[97] when Sister Trinita Flood became President. Bobbe Minsky Nelson reported that although the "faculty as a whole" was "involved" in the decision to replace the tenure system with long-term contracts, Sister Trinita presented tenure as a threat to Barry College's survival. "You have to keep highly paid faculty, and as they get older, they are less productive."[99] Thus, the administration was able to persuade the faculty that the long-term contracts were bene- ficial to both the College and to the individual faculty member. Nelson stated that "faculty felt they could trust the administration not to jeopardize their jobs."[100] Thus, Sister Trinita created a sense of

trust of the administration among faculty by communicating and explaining needed changes. She usually "got what she wanted," but because she appeared less authoritarian and more approachable than previous administrators, faculty trusted her and felt included in the changes.[101]

Leadership

Sister Judith Balcerski's leadership skills developed throughout the decade of the 1970s. When she was appointed Acting Department Chairman in 1970, she had a BSN degree and limited administrative experience. She earned an MSN degree in 1972 in administration of education programs and a Ph.D. in higher education administration in 1981. Faculty members Ann Desmond, Louis Geiss, Bobbe Nelson, and Lois Selvaggi all described Dr. Balcerski's early leadership as insecure. "When others spoke, she listened."[102] After she had earned her master's degree, these same faculty members stated that Balcerski "knew how to conduct meetings" and "knew how to get faculty to make the decision she wanted."[103] Balcerski instituted long-range planning, beginning with the 1972-73 academic year. Yearly goals reflected concrete objectives to be accomplished during each academic year. These goals were reviewed at the beginning and end of each academic year. When the College instituted long-range planning in 1974, the School of Nursing's yearly goals became a part of their long-range planning process.[104]

Thus, Sister Judith grew from an insecure young leader in 1970 to a dynamic, skillful leader by 1980. She structured the faculty decision-making process and could be quite autocratic when this strategy was

necessary to accomplish the faculty's work. However, she was also described as "understanding." She encouraged faculty to "take care of each other" during personal crises. Her consideration and understanding also encouraged faculty cohesion and responsibility. They felt responsible to each other and to the Barry College School of Nursing.[105]

Nursing Department to Nursing School

Another area of growth during the 1970s was the change in status from Department of Nursing to School of Nursing and subsequent increased involvement in college-wide activities. In 1970, the Department of Nursing had little representation in college-wide committees. The exception was the Library Committee, where by 1973 nursing had a representative, Louise McCormick, and input into policy decisions.[106] Nursing faculty member Anita Butler was described as "knowing how to get things done on campus,"[107] but others felt "quite isolated, mainly due to our clinical schedules."[108]

When the Department of Nursing became the School of Nursing in 1974, the School received representation on all Faculty Senate Committees, the Dean of Students' Affairs Council, and the Planning and Review, Honors, and Library Committees. Nelson and Geiss both stated that after Nursing became a school, faculty were more involved in College affairs, and, as a result, felt less isolated and more a part of College life. Desmond said that they also became more knowledgeable and sophisticated about the College's governance and "campus politics."[109]

Finances

The financial resources of the Barry College School of Nursing were improved during the 1970s by the availability of federal grants. In 1972, the Nursing Department received a grant of $47,000 under the Deprived Schools Act of 1972. These funds were designed to help schools of nursing located in colleges experiencing "financial distress." These funds were not used to pay faculty salaries which remained "frozen." Rather, they were used as capital outlay for education-related equipment such as desks, audiovisual hard- and software, and anatomical models.[109] The following year, and for years thereafter, the School of Nursing received capitation grants under continuations of the Nurse Training Act of 1964. The purpose of these grants was to provide funds for schools of nursing to increase their enrollments. Faculty salaries were subsidized. Three faculty curriculum development efforts were also funded with capitation dollars.[110] Beginning in 1977, capitation funds were used to increase enrollment by assisting educationally disadvantaged students and by hiring a full-time nursing continuing education director. In 1978, Barry began its Registered Nurse to BSN transition program, also partially supported by federal nurse training funds.[111]

Throughout the 1970s, and continuing to the present time, the Nursing faculty has had input into the School's budget process. The Dean presents a proposed budget to the faculty who then make suggestions regarding changes. Faculty are not told each other's salaries; therefore, faculty input is limited to capital outlay, maintenance and repairs, postage, travel, and the like. Barbara Nelson stated that there was "never any question, students came first,"[112] there was no

scrimping on instructional materials.   Rather, faculty salaries were "frozen" for two years, 1972-74, then capitation funds were used to augment tuition revenues to raise faculty salaries. Nelson related that the nursing faculty was aware of the College's financial difficulties, and also that their salaries "were low in the Southern Region."[113] As the 1970s came to a close, the School of Nursing, in an effort to continue to increase tuition-generated revenues, decided to increase their Registered Nurse enrollment and to begin an "accelerated option" program in which persons holding baccalaureate degrees in other disciplines could earn a BSN degree in one calendar year.   The Accelerated Option was initiated in 1983.[114]

Summary

This chapter has described the development of the Barry College School of Nursing from 1953 to 1980, with emphasis on a period of rapid growth and change in the 1970s.

In 1953, nursing was a small department comprised of twenty students and one department chairperson, Sister Helen Margaret McGinly, O.P. The curriculum was typical of nursing curricula of that time in that it combined liberal arts and sciences with nursing professional studies. Many nursing classes were held at the hospital.   The nursing curriculum was comprised of one-hundred-sixty-four semester hours spread over four academic years and four summers. Typical of nursing programs of the 1950s, the Barry nursing students spent most of their time either in class or at the hospital. These students were required to be of good character and to remain single until they graduated. They were closely

supervised while in the hospital and in other facets of their student life.

The Barry College Nursing Department grew gradually and, after several years of concentrated curriculum development, received NLN accreditation in 1962. The School of Nursing has maintained its accreditation to the present time.

By 1964, there were seventy nursing majors, and the curriculum was comprised of one-hundred-forty-two semester hours which students earned over four academic years and one summer. By 1964, students could choose to live either in campus residence halls or at their parent's home. They were still required to remain single. Financial support from the College was adequate to provide for slow, steady growth during the Department of Nursing's early years.

In common with the rest of Barry College, the Department of Nursing changed rapidly during the 1970s. Sister Judith Ann Balcerski became Acting Chairperson in 1969, Chairperson in 1972, and Dean of the newly created School of Nursing in 1974. Sister Judith's leadership skills developed during the 1970s with leadership experience and additional education. The faculty worked very hard to refine and improve the nursing curriculum according to NLN criteria. The semester hours required to complete the nursing curriculum were reduced to one hundred twenty, to be consistent with other curricula at Barry College. The faculty also developed an ongoing curriculum evaluation system and participated in the college-wide and departmental long-range planning process. Several faculty members interviewed reported that they felt

quite proud of their curriculum change efforts and the revised nursing curriculum.

The academic qualifications of the Chairperson/Dean and the faculty were upgraded to master's degrees for a majority of the faculty and a Ph.D. for the Dean and one other faculty member. With this improved educational preparation, the nursing faculty became more sophisticated.

After the 1974 college-wide reorganization, the Barry College Nursing Department became the School of Nursing and the former chairperson was named its first dean. At the same time, in common with the rest of the college, the tenure system was replaced by short-term, then long-term, faculty contracts.

Another influence for change during the 1970s was the School of Nursing's access to federal grant funds. These funds were used to increase enrollment, to purchase hardware to improve teaching, and in 1978, to begin the Nursing Continuing Education Department

Thus, the School of Nursing grew from a small department in 1953 to the largest school in Barry College by 1980. It also improved its curriculum and its faculty's academic preparations and offered continuing education to meet the needs of graduate nurses in South Florida.

Notes

[1]Sister M. Dorothy Browne, O.P., Ph.D., former president of Barry College, personal letter, 6 May 1985.

[2]"School of Nursing Added to Barry College Roster," Miami Herald, 27 April 1949; "New School Opens at Barry College," Miami Herald, 17 June 1949; "Nursing Consultant to Discuss Barry Program," Miami Herald, 8 January 1950; Barry College, Miami, Florida, Board of Trustees,

Minutes of the Meeting of 1 February 1950; Sister Dorothy Browne, personal letter, 6 May 1985.

[3]Barry College, Miami, Florida, Board of Trustees, Minutes of the Meeting of 1 February 1953; "School of Nursing," North Dade Journal (Florida), 1 October 1953; "Nurse Educator to Visit Barry," North Dade Journal, 28 February 1954; Sister Dorothy Browne, personal letter, 6 May, 1985.

[4]"Student Nurses to Start Summer Session," Miami Daily News, 9 June 1954; "Service with a Smile," Miami Herald, 11 June 1954; Sister Dorothy Browne, personal letter, 6 May 1985.

[5]Sister Dorothy Browne, personal letter, 6 May 1985.

[6]Anne Desmond, R.N., M.S.N. Barry College Alumna and Faculty Member, Personal interview, Miami Shores, Florida, 2 May 1985.

[7]"First Nurses Are Capped in Barry College Ritual," Miami Daily News, 15 January 1955.

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CHAPTER VII
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze and summarize the changes that occurred at Barry College and its School of Nursing from 1940 to 1980. The historical evolution of Barry College and its School of Nursing has been described in Chapters V and VI. In Chapter VII the following questions about Barry College/University are answered:

1. What was the nature of participation in the change process at Barry College and in its School of Nursing?

2. What factors facilitated change at Barry College?

3. What factors inhibited change at Barry College?

4. What strategies were used in the change process at Barry College?

5. What strategies facilitated the changes at Barry College?

6. What strategies inhibited change at Barry College?

7. What generalizations can be drawn by applying general systems theory to the history of Barry College?

8. What research is needed to better understand change in nursing education?

Questions one through six are answered by analyzing and summarizing the data found in Chapter IV, the Suprasystem; Chapter V, The System; and Chapter VI, The Subsystem. Question seven is answered through a

systems analysis of the history of Barry College and its School of Nursing, as they were influenced by such suprasystem components as war; federal legislation and funding; and accreditation bodies such as the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the Council on Social Work Education, and the National League for Nursing.

After questions one through seven have been answered, question eight is answered by identifying some needed research about change in nursing education.

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Question 1:
What Was the Nature of Participation in the Change Process
at Barry College in the School of Nursing?

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When Barry College was founded in 1940, decisions about change were made primarily by nuns and other religious leaders. As the college grew, these religious leaders felt the need to include laymen in the change process. Lay participation began in 1962 with the Lay Advisory Board. In 1966, the influence of lay participation significantly increased when Barry College was reincorporated and two laymen were elected to he Board of Trustees.

Similarly, as the proportion of nuns on the faculty decreased, lay faculty participation in the change process gradually increased. During the 1970s, as nonreligious faculty became a majority, lay faculty influence increased proportionately. At this time, outside consultants also became more prominent participants. During the 1970s, stimulated by federal legislation, students became active participants in the change process at Barry College.

Question 2:
What Factors Facilitated Change?

From the beginning, an important facilitating factor in change at Barry was its growth in student enrollment and numbers of faculty. When the school opened in 1940, there were seventeen faculty members and forty-five students. This planned steady growth in enrollment necessitated an increase in curriculum offerings as well as an enlargement in faculty and administrative staff. By 1958, the three-division administrative structure had become unwieldy and discussions were initiated regarding reclassification of the academic divisions.[1] Growth in the size and complexity of Barry College continued to facilitate change until 1980, when it was renamed Barry University.

Another factor which influenced change, both in prosperity and in adversity, was Barry College's financial base. The early support of the Barry family and the Adrian Dominican Congregation was supplemented with low-interest loans. In 1946, when Barry College first sought accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the Association's endowment requirement was met by "an annual annuity of $15,000"[2] from the General Council of the Adrian Dominican Congregation.

Subsequent growth was financed during the 1950s and 1960s by sale of donated properties, low interest Federal Housing Authority loans, and charitable foundation grants. Student financial aid, funded by the 1957 National Defense Education Act, was instituted in 1960.

In 1953, after two previous attempts had failed, the Barry College nursing program was founded under the leadership of the Department of Nursing Chairman Sister Helen Margaret McGinley, O.P. Factors favoring

the establishment of the nursing program were adequate financial support from the College, a need for nurses in South Florida, and the leadership of Sister Helen Margaret.

During the 1970s, state and federal financial support not only facilitated change at Barry College, it may also have helped the College to survive. Throughout the 1960s, Barry College had received federal financial support, mostly loans and construction grants. These included Cuban refugee student loans in 1961 and National Defense Education Loans in 1963. In 1964, Barry students began receiving Florida State scholarships. During the 1970s, the School of Social Work's Indian social worker education program and the School of Nursing's Continuing Education program received grant support during a time when many educational efforts lost federal funding, because these programs met a federally mandated need and were designed to meet federal funding guidelines.

Quality of leadership was another factor which both facilitated and hindered change at Barry College. The effective leadership of the founders has been thoroughly documented. Former Presidents, Sister M. Dorothy Brown, O.P., and M. Trinita Flood, O.P., and Nursing Dean, Dr. Judith A. Balcerski, provide clear examples of growth and development of young faculty members who became effective leaders at Barry College.

In summary, several factors facilitated the change process at Barry College. These factors were growth in the size of the College, adequate financial support, federal legislative mandates, and effective leadership.

Question 3:
What Factors Inhibited Change?

One factor that may have inhibited change during the early years was its centralized administrative structure, with control vested in the General Council of the Sisters of the Third Order of St. Dominic. Until 1962, all members of the Barry College Board of Trustees were Adrian Dominicans, and all of the Board of Trustees meetings were held in Adrian, Michigan, not on the Barry campus. No majority policy changes were made by the administrators who resided on the Miami Shores campus. In 1962, the Lay Advisory Board was appointed to help the sisters with financial, legal, and political concerns because the sister-administrators needed help in dealing with the ever-more complex world. Perhaps a lack of administrative sophistication even hindered attempts to keep Barry College up to date.

Another factor which inhibited change in the Barry College School of Nursing was ineffective leadership. The abrupt resignation of Sister Loretta Michael Turner and subsequent appointment of inexperienced Acting Department Chairperson, Sister Judith A. Balcerski, O.P., caused difficulty with a planned curriculum revision and subsequent National League for Nursing (NLN) accreditation visit. Lack of effective leadership delayed the curriculum change process and resulted in only provisional NLN accreditation of the Department of Nursing until 1972.

Another factor which impacted upon the change process at Barry was its financial status. During the late 1960s and throughout the 1970s, a series of financial crises plagued Barry, as well as many other Catholic and private colleges. Barry attempted to solve its financial problems

by increasing tuition and other funding sources, but deficit financing dominated the Board's and the administration's concern for many years. However, these financial difficulties forced the College to diversify its financial resources and to improve its budgeting and other financial controls. Thus, financial difficulties first inhibited, but eventually facilitated, change at Barry College.

The inherent conservatism of the institution was probably the factor most inhibiting of change at Barry College. Although changes did occur throughout Barry's history, most were gradual developmental changes, related to growth in enrollment, not radical change. During the 1970s, when change accelerated in many outside areas, change also accelerated at Barry. Despite this acceleration in change, Barry College/University has remained conservative in many ways, probably related to its conservative Roman Catholic roots and the relative success of the institution's previous management strategies.

In summary, several factors inhibited change at Barry College. These factors included a centralized administrative structure and communication style, ineffective leadership, the financial difficulties of the 1960s and 1970s, and the inherent conservatism of both the institution and its individual members.

Question 4: What Strategies Were Used in the Change Process at Barry College?

Any discussion of change strategies implies that all change is planned change. As seen previously in this chapter, many factors which

facilitate or inhibit change relate to both planned and unplanned change. In this section, only planned change is addressed.

A group of strategies used in the change process at Barry College was described by Chin and Benne in their book, The Planning of Change. Chin and Benne called their change strategies 1) "empirical-rational,1" 2) "normative-reeducative," and 3) "power-coercive."[3] At Barry College "empirical-rational" change strategies, based on the assumption that people are rational and will follow their rational self-interest, were sometimes used to present a change that appeared rational, then to show those involved how this change was in their own self-interest. This example is explored more fully in the answer to question five.

On the suprasystem level, federal legislation and funding might be considered either "empirical-rational" or "power-coercive" change strategies. Beginning in 1944 and continuing throughout the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s, the federal government influenced many educational systems to make changes. Examples of these federal government strategies and their effect on the change process at Barry College are explored in the answer to question five.

Chin and Benne's "normative-reeducative" change strategy was used repeatedly at Barry College. For example, all of the recent SACS self-studies have included an educational phase where faculty learned about the self-study process, the current SACS standards, and how other colleges had made needed changes. When the nursing program was being planned in 1948, the National League for Nursing Education and the Florida Board of Nursing requirements provided important direction for its planning and implementation. Later, when the School of Social Work

was being planned, the standards of the Council on Social Work Education served as a model for this school. Other "normative-reeducative" change strategies used at Barry College included long-range planning, creation of temporary systems, and the use of consultants as change agents.

Another planned change strategy used at Barry College was release of information about the school to the public. This was certainly educative, though not necessarily "normative-reeducative." In the early years, many newspaper articles, accompanied by attractive pictures, were published. These stories described Barry College's founders, buildings, students, curriculum, and extracurricular activities. Many plans for the future were first introduced to the public in newspaper features. Each August, area newspaper articles featured new faculty members, curriculum offerings, and extracurricular activities. This media attention both facilitated and inhibited change at Barry College. In summary, many change strategies were used at Barry College. These strategies included Chin and Benne's "empirical-rational, "normative-reeducative," and "power-coercive" strategies and also use of media to inform the public of changes under consideration. Most of these strategies were intended to facilitate change, but sometimes strategies were used to inhibit change. How change strategies facilitated or inhibited change at Barry College is addressed in answering questions five and six.

Question 5:
What Strategies Facilitated the Changes at Barry College?

"Normative-reeducative change strategies facilitated many changes at Barry College. One clearly documented example of successful use of

"normative-reeducative" strategies occurred in the Department/School of Nursing where National League for Nursing Criteria, including the NLN's insistence on improving faculty educational qualifications, were used to facilitate needed changes. In this instance, faculty norms were changed to include the desirability of master's degrees for faculty and the unification of the curriculum under a conceptual framework. A series of faculty meetings were held to help faculty learn how to use a conceptual framework to unify the nursing curriculum. Included in this "normative-reeducative" change strategy was the use of curriculum consultant, Dr. Marion McKenna, to guide the faculty and creation of a temporary system in order to effect change. The temporary system was comprised of two "curriculum retreats" which were totally devoted to the change process. Between these two retreats, the nursing faculty worked continuously on developing, implementing, and evaluating the revised curriculum. Although this "normative-reeducative" change strategy was ultimately successful in facilitating change in the Barry College School of Nursing, the change process evolved over a long time period, 1970-76 and required a great deal of faculty time and effort.

Another example of successful "normative-reeducative" strategy at the college level was the 1970-72 Southern Association of Colleges and School (SACS) self-study. Again, a temporary system, a "curriculum convocation" initiated the change process. There was intense debate about the relative value of liberal and professional education. SACS criteria were considered. The proceedings of these meetings were published and circulated on campus and to the general public. When liberal education competed with professional education, norms were

gradually changed to comply with the SACS suggestion that both liberal and professional education were needed. This "normative-reeducative" change also required considerable effort and took four years (1970-74) to become institutionalized. A variety of substrategies such as consultants and temporary systems were used to facilitate the change. A direct result of this change effort was the establishment of long-range planning, a systems strategy intended to engender an ongoing change process.

The clearest example of the use of consultants on the college level at Barry occurred in 1969-70 when Cresap, McCormick, and Paget of Chicago performed a comprehensive study of Barry College and its relationship to the surrounding community, region, and state in order to identify "the course of action the College should plan and follow as it enters a new decade."[4] First, the consultants' findings were widely circulated and discussed. Once the majority of trustees, administrators, and faculty had become convinced that it was in their best interest to change the college's administrative and financial structures and procedures, a "normative-reeducative" process, a SACS self-study, was used to successfully plan and implement needed change. Once again, a long time period, 1970-75, was needed to complete this change process.

The change in 1974 from a faculty tenure system to a series of evaluations followed by long-term contracts was the clearest example of the use of "empirical-rational" strategy to facilitate change at Barry College. In this instance, the change was presented as a way to improve both the College and its faculty. Tenure was called a "threat to Barry College's survival."[5] A majority of the faculty interviewed for this

study stated that they believed that the revised policies would improve the quality of faculty. They further stated that they perceived the new long-term contract procedure as beneficial to both the College and the individual faculty member. Furthermore, they trusted the administration not to jeopardize their jobs.[6] Thus, the faculty was persuaded that the abolishment of tenure was not only good for Barry College but also in the faculty's best interest.

A suprasystem "power-coercive" change strategy was the establishment by the United States government of grants and loans to educational institutions and school systems. Beginning in 1946, the federal government used legal and financial inducements to effect a wide variety of educational changes, including college education for veterans throughout the 1940s and 1950, public school desegregation in the 1950s and 1960s, and equality of educational opportunity in the 1970s. Barry College was only minimally affected until the 1960s when they received construction funds and the 1970s when federal legislation and funding influenced the College to become coeducational. This use of federal funding to effect change was the most obvious example of "power-coercive" change strategies seen at Barry College. In some respects, federal funding was also an "empirical-rational" change strategy, because many educators perceived the adoption of federally-funded changes as being in their own best interest.

Another example of effective "power-coercive" strategy to force adoption of needed educational change was the threat of nonreaccreditation by SACS, the NLN, and other national accrediting agencies. In fact, three nursing faculty members stated that SACS and NLN standards

and criteria were used, along with the threat of nonreaccreditation, to implement change when resistance was encountered.[7]

In summary, "empirical-rational," "normative-reeducative," and "power-coercive" change strategies were all used to facilitate change at Barry College. Successful "empirical-rational change strategies included the use of consultants and the standards of national educational agencies to convince administration and faculty that proposed changes were in the institution's and their own best interest. On the suprasystem level, there was an element of both the "empirical-rational" and "power-coercive" strategies in the use of federal government grants and loans to entice the College, and its administration and faculty, to plan and implement change.

"Normative-reeducative" change strategies predominated throughout the history of Barry College. The standards of various national educational agencies were used to educate faculty and staff about national trends and standards. Then, through the employment of such substrategies as use of consultants, creation of temporary systems, and finally the institution of a long-range planning process, Barry College, from 1940 to 1980, was guided in its growth and development from a small Roman Catholic women's college into a medium-sized, coeducational university. Throughout all of the changes, Barry College/University retained its identity as a Roman Catholic educational institution.

Question 6:
What Strategies Inhibited Change?

Any discussion of change strategies should include those strategies which were employed to slow or inhibit the change process. At Barry

College, the following strategies were used to inhibit change: 1) maintenance of a conservative, centralized administrative structure; 2) legal requirements for administration and practice; and 3) the standards of various national accrediting organizations.

Previously discussed as a factor inhibiting change at Barry College, its centralized administrative structure and inherent conservatism could also be considered a deliberate change-inhibiting strategy. From its founding in 1940 until 1974 the Barry College Board of Trustees was control by Adrian Dominican sisters. In the early years, many decisions were made in Adrian, then delegated to the sisters who resided at Barry College. As the College grew, the centralized administrative structure became "difficult." This centralized leadership was perceived by many faculty and staff as a deliberate strategy to inhibit change. In 1970, the consulting firm of Cresap, McCormick, and Paget reported that "overcentralization was strongly criticized by many at Barry College; nothing could be done without the President's approval."[8] The Cresap report also identified the Dominican sister's dominance of College committees as an indicator of overcentralization. In the instance of College committees and councils, the Cresap report stated that "70% of the Sisters served on one or more committees, compared with only 45% of full-time lay faculty and administrators."[9] The Educational Program Committee for the 1972 Southern Association self-study found that curriculum change was "ordinarily initiated" by departmental administrators and "implemented with the approval of the Academic Dean."[10] The Southern Association visitors agreed that administration

dominance as a problem and recommended establishment of an ongoing "curriculum study or planning committee."[11]

The legal requirements of college and school administration and of professional practice were sometimes cited to inhibit the change process at Barry College. At the college level, the most striking example of the way in which legal requirements inhibited change was the legal separation of Barry College from the Adrian Dominican Congregation. The legal implications of this change were researched by lawyers for the College and lawyers for the Congregation. At this time, the legal question "who owned Barry College, the Board of Trustees or the Adrian Dominican Congregation?"[12] was asked. In January 1972, the Congregation released a detailed study of its relationship to its fourteen corporations, one of which was Barry College. The study concluded that Barry College became independent when control of the Board of Trustees passed from the sisters to the lay board members and thus recommended legal transfer of ownership and financial responsibility. This arduous process unfolded over a three-year time period, 1971-1974. The length and complexity of this legal transfer process suggests that legal requirements did, in fact, inhibit the change process at Barry College.

At the school level, legal requirements for licensure slowed the change process in the school of nursing. From the beginning, the nursing curriculum was designed so that nursing graduates would meet the Florida Board of Nursing's educational requirements for licensure of professional nurses. Two faculty interviewees identified licensure requirements as inhibitors of change. One interviewee stated that the purpose of licensure was to protect the public and that proposed changes

had to be approved by the Florida Board of Nursing.[13] If changes were not approved, they were not adopted. On the other hand, if the Board of Nursing required changes, they were adopted. Thus, legal requirements for nursing licensure could facilitate, but often inhibited, changes in nursing education.

Similarly, the standards of the national accrediting agencies were occasionally used to inhibit rather than facilitate change. Former president Sister Trinita Flood stated that the "Southern Association was rigid and nit-picky."[14] Sometimes this rigidity discouraged needed changes. Similarly, Nursing Dean Balcerski stated that sometimes the NLN was conservative, thus, inhibiting change.[15] Thus, it can be concluded that although educational standards were often used to facilitate change, they could also be used as strategies intended to inhibit change, and that legal requirements more often inhibited rather than facilitated change.

Furthermore, resistance to change may be considered to be helpful when proposed changes are evaluated in light of group or community norms and are perceived to violate these norms. This resistance can protect a system from potentially destructive changes.

Question 7:
What Generalizations Can Be Drawn by Applying General
Systems Theory to the History of Barry College?

In order to answer the above question, a series of systems models are shown to aid in the analysis. There is a model to represent each ten-year period, 1940, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980, of Barry's history. Figure 7-1 represents the suprasystem and the Barry College system in
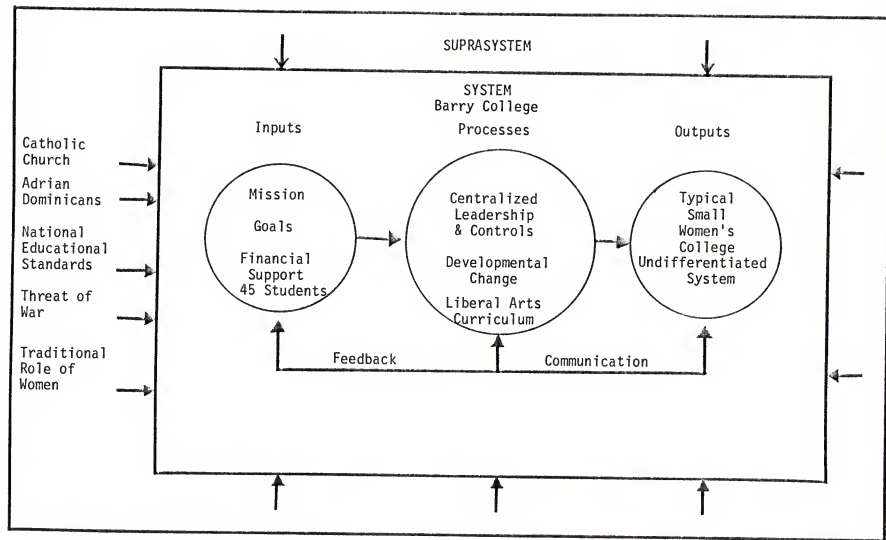
Figure 7-1. A Systems MODEL OF Barry College: 1940

The diagram shows a SUPRASYSTEM outer box containing a SYSTEM box labeled "Barry College."

External inputs (left side, pointing into the suprasystem):
- Catholic Church
- Adrian Dominicans
- National Educational Standards
- Threat of War
- Traditional Role of Women

Within the SYSTEM:

Inputs
- Mission
- Goals
- Financial Support
- 45 Students

Processes
- Centralized Leadership & Controls
- Developmental Change
- Liberal Arts Curriculum

Outputs
- Typical Small Women's College Undifferentiated System

Feedback — Communication

1940. Suprasystem influences included the Roman Catholic Church, the Adrian Dominican Congregation of Sisters, national educational standards, and the growing threat of war. Barry College is represented as a small, undifferentiated open system with inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback. In 1940, inputs included a mission and goals as a Roman Catholic women's college; the financial support of the Adrian Dominicans; a small mostly religious faculty; and forty-five young women students. Processes were comprised of centralized leadership and control mechanisms which attempted to operationalize the input mission and goals within a caring supportive climate. The traditional liberal arts curriculum and small classes were also systems processes of Barry College in 1940. Because the College was small, students were well known to the faculty. The output that occurred was a small Catholic women's college that was quite typical of other women's colleges of 1940. The Barry system's small size allowed sufficient feedback to encourage gradual developmental growth and change within a stable system.

Figure 7-2 represents Barry College in 1950. Suprasystem influences, again, included the Roman Catholic Church and Adrian Dominican sisters. The sluggish national economy and slow rate of educational change resulted in a relatively stable educational suprasystem. In 1950, inputs still included the aforementioned Roman Catholic mission, goals, and financial supports. Student enrollment had increased to approximately three hundred. In 1950, Barry College's processes were quite similar to those of 1940: centralized leadership and control mechanisms and a liberal arts curriculum. Due to the
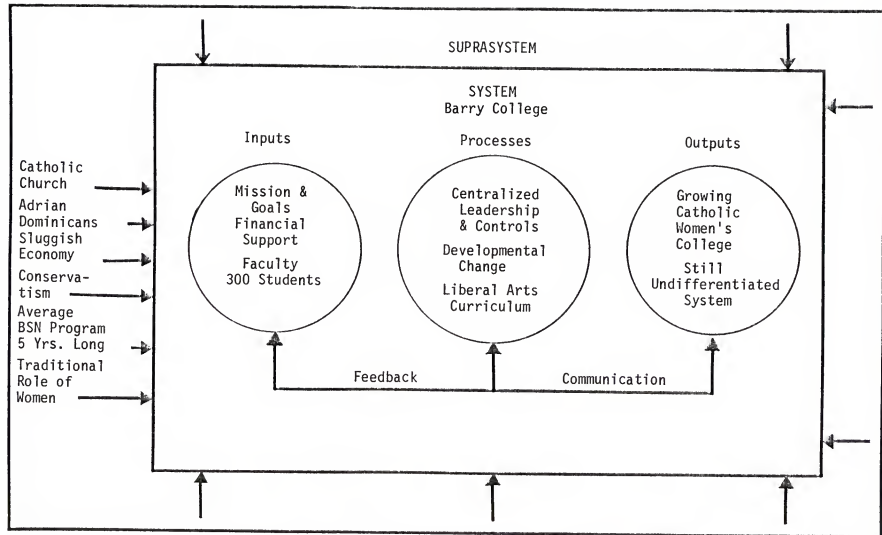
Figure 7-2. A Systems Model of Barry College: 1950

SUPRASYSTEM

SYSTEM
Barry College

Inputs

Mission &
Goals
Financial
Support

Faculty
300 Students

Processes

Centralized
Leadership
& Controls

Developmental
Change

Liberal Arts
Curriculum

Outputs

Growing
Catholic
Women's
College

Still
Undifferentiated
System

Catholic
Church

Adrian
Dominicans
Sluggish
Economy

Conserva-
tism

Average
BSN Program
5 Yrs. Long

Traditional
Role of
Women

Feedback   Communication

six-fold increase in student enrollment, curriculum offerings and class size increased, but the curriculum remained traditional. It stressed religion, philosophy, and other subjects intended to prepare its young women students for the traditional occupational roles of wife, mother, and teacher. The output that resulted from Barry College's 1950 inputs and processes was a relatively stable but growing Roman Catholic women's college with the expected traditional mission and goals.

Figure 7-3 depicts the Barry system in 1950. Suprasystem influences included the previously discussed Roman Catholic Church and its Adrian Dominican Congregation. The election of Catholic President John F. Kennedy in 1960 added increased pride and self-esteem to almost all Roman Catholic institutions including Barry College. There, faculty and students organized a "Prayer Battalion" which spread to many Catholic colleges around the country.[16] New inputs to the Barry system included the beginning of student financial aid and an enrollment of about eight hundred fifty students, including a few men. Processes included continuing centralized controls which became increasingly ineffective as the College grew in size and complexity. As enrollment grew, tuition charges were raised in an attempt to meet increased expenses. The majority of the faculty were still sisters, but they achieved increased visibility outside the College when they became involved in helping many of the Cuban refugees who came to Miami beginning in 1960. Barry College began to decentralize in 1954 with the addition of the Graduate Division. In 1962, Mother Genevieve Weber, O.P., became the first president to reside on the Barry campus. Thus, in 1960, the College had begun a decentralization process which continued throughout the 1960s
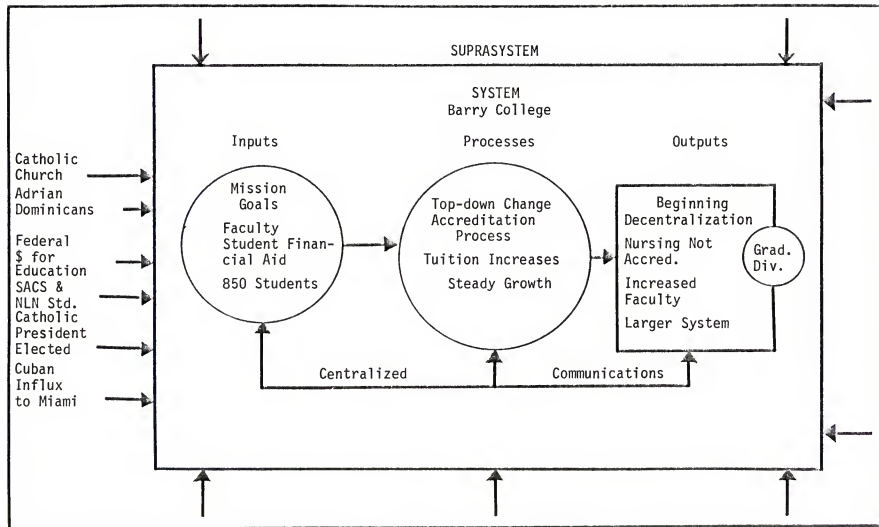
Figure 7-3. A Systems Model of Barry College: 1960

and 1970s. Thus, one can see that in 1960, Barry College's output was a small but growing Catholic women's college, which had enrolled a small number of men and had continued to increase in size and complexity.

Figure 7-4 represents Barry College in 1970. Additional supra-system influences included inflation, campus unrest, and the National League for Nursing's (NLN's) threat to withhold the Nursing Department's reaccreditation. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools' (SACS) standards were a suprasystem influence upon the entire college. Inputs included those of the laymen on the Board of Trustees, increase of lay faculty members to 50 percent of the total faculty, another doubling of the student enrollment, and a corresponding increase in the over twenty-five-year-old student group. Processes include the 1970-71 campus-wide curriculum review and study, a growing confusion regarding the College's mission, a difficult curriculum change process in the Department of Nursing, and lively faculty-student dialogue about many problems and concerns including the Vietnam war. Outputs included a serious budget deficit and an increase in secularization, but there were no student demonstrations on the Barry campus. Differentiation had added the Division of Administrative Affairs, the Graduate Division, and the College's first separate school, Social Work. These subsystems are abbreviated in Figure 7-5 in the following manner: Administrative Affairs, Adm. Aff.; Graduate Division, Grad. Div.; School of Social Work, S.W.; and School of Nursing, Nur. The year 1970 was the middle of the most difficult period in Barry College's history. The College trustees and administration were preoccupied with financial difficulties
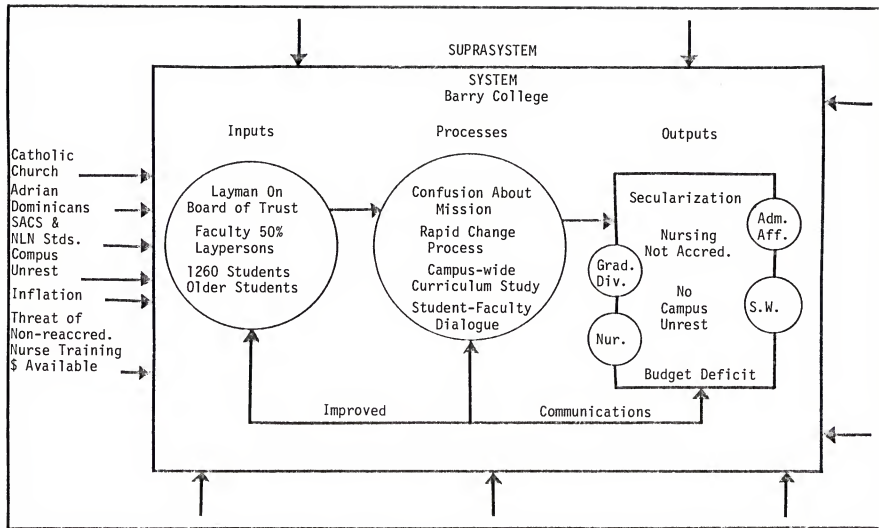
Figure 7-4. A Systems Model of Barry College: 1970

which threatened Barry's survival and continued to be a problem for the next several years.

Figure 7-5 depicts the Barry University system of 1980. The subsystem abbreviations are the same as those in Figure 7-4 with the addition of the School of Education, Sch. Educ., and the Division of Development, Dev. Div. New suprasystem influences included decreased federal funding to education at all levels and a growing conservatism throughout the entire country. This conservatism reinforced the previously institutionalized conservatism of such institutions as Barry College/University. The standards of such educational accrediting agencies as SACS and the NLN continued to be important suprasystem influences. At Barry University, the reconstituted Board of Trustees, with a majority of laypersons, and the predominately lay faculty provided significantly changed inputs. The student body of 2,033 was also an important input, especially the addition of significant numbers of male students. Processes included continuing debate regarding the relative value of liberal and professional education, coeducation, and other curriculum issues. Increased cooperation between Barry and other private and public colleges and universities reflected both increased sophistication and an appreciation of the diversity that characterized higher education as it entered the 1980s. Long-range planning, begun in 1975, institutionalized planned change processes with regular one- and three-year cycles in an attempt to control the previous rapid, and often unplanned, change process. The resultant output in 1980 was a complex differentiated system with multiple subsystems and improved clarity of its mission, goals, and communications.
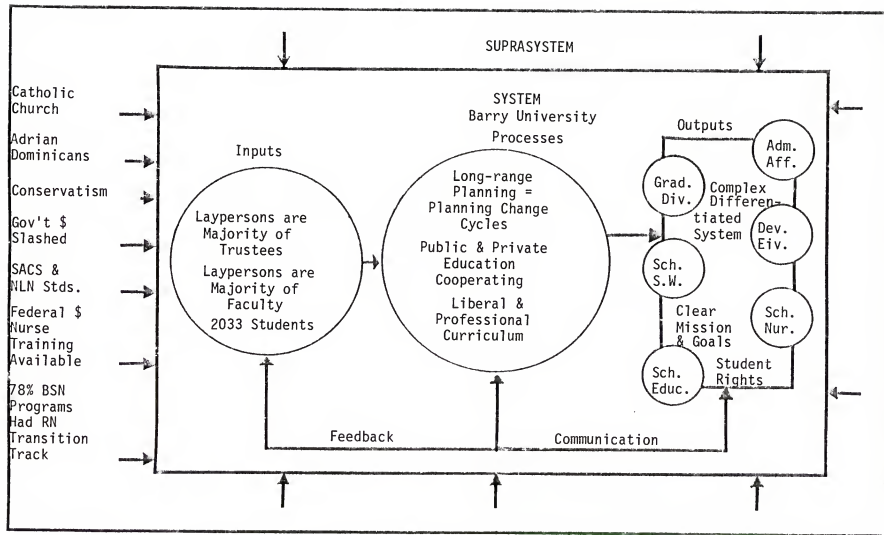
Figure 7-5. A System Model of Barry University: 1980

In summary, general systems theory can assist the researcher to discern that Barry College was, in 1940, a small, undifferentiated open system profoundly influenced by the Roman Catholic Church and the College's parent organization, the Adrian Dominican Congregation of sisters. Figure 7-1 represents Barry College as it was in 1940, characterized by its Roman Catholic mission, goals, and centralized control mechanisms. In 1950, depicted in Figure 7-2, developmental change assisted Barry as it grew in numbers of students, faculty, and curriculum offerings. Inputs, processes, and outputs remained similar to those of 1940. Figure 7-3 represents the Barry system in 1960, growing, but still relatively stable. Between 1960 and 1970, depicted in Figure 7-4, Barry College, in common with many other colleges, began to experience an accelerated rate of change. Many of the changes were unplanned. Student enrollment grew rapidly. Financial difficulties threatened many colleges', including Barry's, survival. Student unrest disturbed many campuses, but there were no demonstrations at Barry College. During the 1970s, rapid change continued, and budget deficits caused the closing of many small colleges. Deficit financing was a problem at Barry until the mid-1970s. In 1974, Barry reorganized its administrative structure and Board of Trustees. Long-range planning, a systems change strategy, was instituted in 1975.

Figure 7-5 depicts the College, which was renamed Barry University, in 1980. The suprasystem continued to affect Barry in such areas as decreased federal funding, increasing conservatism, and established educational standards. The major changes in inputs were related to the growing complexity of the system and the greatly increased influence of

secularism upon that system.   At the same time, Barry University's mission and goals as a modern Catholic educational institution had been refined and strengthened by the challenges of the turbulent 1970s. The resulting complex differentiated system, with its multiple subsystems, was able to learn to effectively communicate within and between its subsystem. Long-range planning provided an effective self-renewal and communication mechanism. Thus, Barry became, at the same time, a more complex yet also a more simplified system.

Systems analysis suggests that certain systems characteristics were retained and strengthened throughout Barry's history. These character- istics, along with the previously described changes, helped Barry College to survive and grow during a period when many other small colleges were forced to close. Barry College's Roman Catholic mission was refined and strengthened by the processes it experienced throughout its history. The determination of strong leaders enabled the system to retain its unique characteristics during the time when it sought and received help in effecting needed modernization, growth, and change.

Maintenance of academic standards acceptable to national accredit- ing agencies was another systems characteristic which was present throughout Barry's history. The leaders were usually able to use the accreditation process both to effect change when needed and also to assure that any changes were planned and implemented within acceptable national standards.

Throughout its history, the Barry administration and senior faculty encouraged both junior faculty and students to develop their leadership, as well as their scholarship abilities.   This not only assisted

individuals with their personal and professional growth, it also enabled
Barry to develop many of its future leaders.

Question 8:
What Research Is Needed to Better Understand Change in Nursing Education?

Many researchers have addressed planned change. Research
methodology often dictates that investigations of planned change address
rather small change efforts, or short-term change projects. In 1970,
Platt suggested that systems research be directed toward providing for
or controlling unplanned change. He called these changes "hierarchical
restructurings."[17] Long-range planning has developed as one way to
institutionalize planned change in both short-term and long-range time
frames. This study briefly described the long-range planning, implemen-
tation, and evaluation of planned change at Barry College/University,
but a study of the long-range planning process was not a primary goal of
this investigation. Therefore, more detailed research into the use of
the long-range planning process in nursing education might help
educators better understand and control change in nursing education.

Another area for potential research is change strategy. There are
several interesting questions regarding change strategies that could
help educators better understand change in nursing education. Barry
College/University employed "normative-reeducative" change strategies
much more frequently than it used other change strategies. This could
have been related to the fact that the College had an institutional
mission as a Catholic educational system and norms of intelligent
problem solving in a caring, supportive climate. Barry College was

willing to use "normative-reeducative" change strategies even though they required that much time and effort be devoted to the change process. Despite intensive questioning regarding how the change process evolved at Barry College/University, none of the interviewees related any phase of the process to the College's mission and goals. Although many books and articles recommended that nursing educators use various strategies that could be considered "normative-reeducative," no studies were found that examined the relationship of institutional mission and norms to the change strategies actually used to effect change. Therefore, further research is needed to help nursing educators understand how institutional mission and norms are related to the particular change strategies employed by educational institutions.

A related question is do predominately female organizations such as women's colleges and schools of nursing use different change strategies than predominately male or coeducational universities? Also, do educational institutions use "normative-reeducative" change strategies more frequently than business or industrial organizations? Although research has been done by investigators interested in organizational behavior, there remain many unanswered questions regarding the change process.

The use of consultants as change agents has been discussed frequently in the literature of organizational change. In this investigation there was clear documentation that the Cresap consultants were effective change agents at Barry College, but interviewees did not perceive their effectiveness to the degree that it was validated in official documents. Therefore, it remains unclear whether these consultants were effective because they identified needed changes or whether

the consultants were perceived as effective by some members of the Barry College system, but not by others. However, when the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) consultants recommended the same needed changes that the Cresap consultants had previously identified, the SACS consultants were perceived as helpful. This investigation did not study the use of consultants in great depth; therefore, there are unanswered questions regarding the use of consultants at Barry College. Perhaps the SACS consultants were perceived as more helpful because they were educational consultants while the Cresap consultants were management consultants. The congruence of types of consultants with types of educational institutions could be addressed in future research. An extension of this research might be investigation of whether predominately male or coeducational institutions can better utilize a different type of consultant than predominately female educational systems such as nursing education. Therefore, a more detailed investigation of the use of consultants as change agents might help nursing educators better understand and control change in nursing education.

Summary

The study of the history of Barry College answered many interesting questions about the changes that occurred during the time period from 1940 to 1980. Systems analysis suggests that leaders in higher education can learn some valuable lessons about survival and growth from the history of Barry College/University. First, a clearly understood mission and goals are important, and they must be redefined to remain congruent with both the institution and the larger society. Second,

planning and implementation of educational programs and curricula in accordance with nationally accepted standards is an effective change strategy. Third, institutions should strive to develop effective leaders who understand both their own system and the larger suprasystem. Fourth, carefully planned growth and change are, in the long run, more efficient than unplanned change, despite the time and effort they require. Lastly, complex educational systems can be made simpler, and thus more manageable, by the establishment of subsystems which communicate effectively within and among themselves and with the larger system.

Notes

[1] Barry College, Miami, Florida, Board of Trustees, Minutes of the Meeting of 23 February 1958.

[2] Third Order of St. Dominic, Adrian, Michigan, General Council, Minutes of the Meeting of 28 October 1946.

[3] Robert Chin and Kenneth D. Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Change in Human Systems," in ed. Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, Robert Chin, and Kenneth E. Corey, The Planning of Change, 3rd ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1976), p. 23.

[4] Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, Inc., "Barry College: An Assessment of the Future," Chicago: Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, September 1970, p. I-1.

[5] Sister M. Trinita Flood, former president of Barry College, Personal Interview, Miami, Florida, 4 March 1985.

[6] Louise McCormick Geiss, Faculty Member, Barry University School of Nursing, Personal Interview, Miami Shores, Florida, 29 July 1985; Barbara Minsky Nelson, Faculty Member, Barry University School of Nursing, Personal Interview, Miami Shores, Florida, 6 November 1985.

[7] Anne Desmond, Faculty Member, Barry University School of Nursing, Personal Interview, Miami Shores, Florida, 2 May 1985; Lois M. Selvaggi, Faculty Member, Barry University School of Nursing, Personal Interview, 2 May 1985; Geiss, Interview, 29 July 1985.

[8] Cresap Report, p. III-5.

[9] Cresap Report, p. III-7.

[10] Barry College, <u>Self-Study for the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools</u> (Miami, FL: Barry College, 1972), p. III-11.

[11] Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, "Report of the Visiting Committee for Evaluation of Barry College," (Miami, Florida, May 1972), p. 51.

[12] Barry College, Miami, Florida, Board of Trustees, Minutes of Meeting of 22 May 1972.

[13] Nelson, Interview, 6 November 1985.

[14] Sister Trinita, Interview, 4 March 1985.

[15] Judith A Balcerski, R.N., Ph.D., Dean, Barry University School of Nursing, Personal Interview, Miami, Florida, 14 August 1985.

[16] "Presidential Prayer Corps Organizes at Barry," <u>The Voice</u> (Miami), 13 October 1961; "Prayer Corps Opens Drive for Expansion," <u>Miami Herald</u>, 25 October 1962; "Program Spreads Throughout U.S., <u>Catholic News</u> (New York), 27 October 1962; Sister Linda Bevilacqua, O.P., Associate Vice President, Barry University, Personal Interview, Miami Shores, Florida, 18 March 1985.

[17] John Platt, "Hierarchical Restructuring," <u>General Systems</u>, 15 (1970): 49-54.

APPENDIX A
LETTERS

BARRY UNIVERSITY
School of Nursing
11300 Northeast Second Avenue
Miami Shores, Florida 33161
Phone (305) 758-3392

May 11, 1984

Ms. Sally Hughes Lee, RN, MSN
17003 SW 87th Avenue
Miami, FL 33157

Dear Ms. Lee:

After hearing your presentation and speaking with you personally, the
faculty and I would be happy to support your dissertation, "Change in a
Women's College and Its School of Nursing, 1940-1980: A Systems
Analysis." We understand that this entails interviews of present and
past faculty members and access to our documents and records, particu-
larly faculty meeting minutes. We anticipate that the effort required
on our part will be our contribution to the discovery and expansion of
nursing knowledge.

We wish you much success as you progress in your research.

Sincerely,

Sister Judith Ann Balcerski, O.P.
Dean, School of Nursing

JAB:gg

BARRY UNIVERSITY
School of Nursing
11300 Northeast Second Avenue
Miami Shores, Florida 33161
Phone (305) 758-3392

May 21, 1984

Ms. Sally Hughes Lee, RN, MSN
17003 SW 87th Avenue
Miami, FL 33157

Dear Ms. Lee:

We will be happy to assist you in the necessary research for your
dissertation, "Change in a Women's College and Its School of Nursing,
1940-1980: A Systems Analysis," by giving you access to the Barry
University Archives relative to your topic.

Please send my a copy of your approved proposal.

Best wishes,

Sister Marilyn D. Morman, O.P.
Vice President for Planning

MDM:mlc

APPENDIX B
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT

I, _____, consent to be interviewed regarding the events which occurred between 1970 and 1980 during the process of curriculum revision at the Barry University School of Nursing. I understand that the contents of my interview will remain confidential, that my identity will remain confidential, and that my anonymity will be protected by the researcher. I further understand that in the written report to the School, Barry College School of Nursing will be identified but that all information that I discuss will be reported anonymously, unless I give the researcher permission to quote me. I understand that a summary of the report will be available to interviewees who wish to obtain one. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without prejudice, if I wish to do so.

___I do give my consent for an audiotaped recording of my interview.

___I do not give my consent for an audiotaped recording of my interview.

___I give the researcher permission to quote me in the written report.

___I do not give the interviewer permission to quote me.

Place _____

Date _____

_____
Interviewee

_____
Researcher

APPENDIX C
RELEASE FORM
ORAL HISTORY DATA SHEET

RELEASE FORM

Date_____

    I hereby give to Barry University, for whatever scholarly or
educational purposes may be determined, the tape recordings, transcrip-
tions, and content of this oral history interview.

_____   _____
Signature of Interviewee   Signature of Interviewer

_____   _____
Printed Name   Printed Name

_____
Address

Special Restrictions:

_____

_____

_____

Thad Sitton, George L. Mehaffey, and O.L. Davis, Jr. <u>Oral History: A</u>
    <u>Guide for Teachers</u>. Austin: University of Texas Press, (1983), p.
    127. (Reprinted with permission of the publisher)

ORAL HISTORY DATA SHEET

Interviewee_____

Address_____

Phone_____

Date of Birth_____

Place of Birth_____

Date of Interview_____

Place of Interview_____

Interviewer_____

Number of Tapes_____ Interview Status: Completed

                                                    In Progress

Thad Sitton, George L. Mehaffey, and O.L. Davis, Jr. <u>Oral History: A Guide for Teachers</u>. Austin: University of Texas Press, (1983), p. 127. (Reprinted with permission of the publisher)

APPENDIX D
ORAL HISTORY INTERVIEW GUIDE

<u>Oral History Interviews</u>

Some suggested questions to be asked of former presidents and faculty.

1. What was your educational preparation?

2. How long were you connected with Barry College

3. What was your perception of the college's mission?

4. How well did the curriculum fit the college's mission?

5. How did the world outside the college influence the curriculum?

6. What other facets of college life helped to implement the college's mission?

7. How did Barry College relate to the surrounding community, to South Florida, and to the country (participation in organizations, etc.)?

8. What impact did specific events (war, politics, student concerns) have on the college?

9. How was the college financed during your term as president (or faculty member)?

10. How was the college evaluated?

11. What persons were influential in accomplishing the college's mission? How were they influential?

12. Were any organizations influential in accomplishing the college's work?

13. How were changes accomplished? What unplanned changes occurred? How were planned changes introduced?

14. How were changes implemented?

15. Were there any inhibitions to the planned changes? If so, what were the inhibitions to change?

<u>Additional Questions for Nursing Faculty Members</u>

1. What preparation did you have for participation in the curriculum change effort?

2. What previous experience did you have in curriculum development?

3. Did you feel prepared to design or revise a total curriculum? Why or why not? Did you feel prepared to design or revise a single course? Why or why not?

4. How was the curriculum development work accomplished (in groups, by committees, or by individuals)?

5. Were any particular faculty members more active than others in the curriculum change process?

6. Who were the leaders (formal and informal)? Were they effective? If so, how? If not, why not?

7. How was the curriculum evaluated? By whom?

8. Were students at all influential in the change process?

Questions for Former Students

1. What was it like to be a student at Barry College while you were enrolled?

2. What were your goals while you were a college student? How did you think a college education would help you to accomplish your goals?

3. Did you participate in extracurricular activities while you were a student? If yes, which ones? If no, why not?

4. How did you finance your education?

5. What else was happening in Miami, in Florida, in the country, and in the world while you were at student at Barry College?

6. Did students have any influence on how the college and the School of Nursing were operated?

7. Did students participate in the change process that occurred? If so, how (serve on committees, circulate and present petitions, demonstrate, etc.)? If not, why not?

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Sally Hughes Lee was born in Hempstead, Long Island, New York, in 1935. She attended elementary and secondary schools in Sea Cliff, New York, graduating from Sea Cliff High School in 1953. She graduated from St. Lukes Hospital School of Nursing in New York, N.Y., in 1956.

Sally Hughes married Robert E. Lee in 1955. Their son, Kenneth Robert Lee, was born in 1956 and daughter, Diane Margaret Lee, in 1959. Along with her family responsibilities, Mrs. Lee continued her nursing career.

In 1965, Sally enrolled as a part-time student at the University of Alabama, Birmingham, to begin work on her Bachelor of Science in Nursing. In 1969, she transferred to Vanderbilt University in Nashville, Tennessee, where she received her Bachelor of Science in Nursing, Magna Cum Laude, in 1971 and her Master of Science in Nursing in 1972.

Mrs. Lee has had a challenging career in nursing education. She has taught at the associate degree, diploma, baccalaureate, and master's degree levels in schools of nursing in Alabama and Florida. Presently, Mrs. Lee is teaching at the University of Miami School of Nursing in the Master of Science in Nursing program. She plans to continue to contribute to the enrichment of student learning experiences, nursing research, and community service upon completion of her Doctor of Education degree.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.
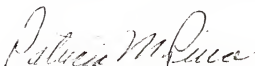
William H. Drummond, Chairman
Professor Emeritus of Educational
    Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

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Professor Emeritus of Educational
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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

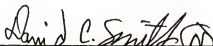Patricia M. Pierce
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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

August 1987

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